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## The Week.

GENERAL GRANT has allowed himself to be made the instrument of removing General Sheridan. This is but a fresh illustration of the small value of great influence to a man who has not been gifted with discretion enough to keep it. The thing the public has most admired in General Grant, next after his great military ability, has been the singular and admirable persistence with which he has kept out of politics. We considered this, for our own part, so good a quality in a republican General, that we were willing in consideration of it to forgive even his failure to support Congress openly in its conflict with the President. But he has now chosen to abandon the vantage-ground of neutrality, and has thrown the weight of his character and services into the Presidential scale. He has helped the President to diminish the odium of removing Mr. Stanton by consenting to take the vacant place, and has by the same act weakened Mr. Stanton's determination to resist. General Grant is now suffering himself to be made the political medium for transmitting orders which he well knows have no other object than the gratification of Mr. Johnson's spite, and the frustration and delay of the plan deliberately made by Congress for the restoration of peace and harmony. To us the loss of Grant's chances of the presidency is the smallest and least important of the consequences of his mistake. The victor of Missionary Ridge and captor of Vicksburg and Richmond has a place in history to which his accession to the presidency could lend no new lustre; but we confess we could wish that his claims to the gratitude of his countrymen were not weakened, as they are sure to be, by this most unfortunate dip into the troubled waters of politics. Still there is no question, in spite of the abuse that is heaped upon him, either as to his honesty or his loyalty; and in all but the effects of the change on the Southern imagination, Thomas will do as well as Sheridan in Louisiana.

The time has come when we can freely express our appreciation of the service which Mr. Stanton has rendered to the country by remaining in office, without doing any injury to him or to the cause which he

has so well served. For many months past he has been exposed to the most offensive suspicion which can attach to a public man—that he sacrificed or smothered his convictions of principle and duty for the mere sake of holding office. Of course, he would not correct misrepresentations himself—no sensible public man does this. But other public men are set right by their friends. Mr. Stanton's friends were forced to be silent. Not that he put any pressure upon them, further than to give his advice in favor of such a course, but that their own judgment told them that to correct misrepresentation would be the surest way to bring about his removal.

Mr. Stanton has not remained in the War Department through the last eighteen months from any motives of ambition or self-interest. His abilities would have gained him an income at the bar vastly greater than his official salary, while his bitterest enemies dare not charge him with a shade of corruption. No one certainly will suspect him of the absurdity of hoping to gain any political advancement by remaining in office under Mr. Johnson. But by simply remaining quietly at his post he has been able to thwart a thousand schemes of mischief, and to put the military force of the Government practically upon the side of Congress, while it was nominally commanded by the President. Sustained by Mr. Stanton, General Howard has made the Freedmen's Bureau a power for good; and the colored people have been helped through trying times into comparative independence. Officers of the army generally are dependent upon the Secretary of War for twenty favors where they can get one from the President, and they have in most cases comprehended this fact, and acted upon it without putting Mr. Stanton to the trouble of reminding them of it by practical instruction. And with all the doubt that has been felt as to the Secretary's position with respect to the President's policy, no one was in any doubt as to his determination to see justice done to loyal men of all colors so far as lay within his legitimate sphere. And thus the power of the administration has really been on the side of justice throughout the South, where alone that administration had any real power. Exceptions there have been. New Orleans and Memphis suggest horrible recollections. But the country owes it to Mr. Stanton that the number of such memories is limited.

It was for the sole purpose of preventing Mr. Stanton's removal that the House of Representatives insisted upon including cabinet officers within the protection of the Civil Office Tenure act. The Senate was willing to leave these officers to the discretion of the President; but the House persisted in restricting his power over them, and the Senate finally concurred. Mr. Stanton has therefore simply complied with the wishes of Congress in refusing to resign, and accepting the extremely unpleasant position of a suspended officer. The action of Mr. Johnson towards the Secretary affords no ground *in itself* for vehement censure; but, as an indication of his stubbornness, his unwillingness to submit to the will of the people, and his intention to take the first opportunity, consistent with his safety, of obstructing the operation of laws which he believes to be unconstitutional and unjust, it deserves emphatic condemnation. It is, of course, very humiliating for the President of the United States to be compelled to execute a policy diametrically opposite to one which he has devised, and to the establishment of which he devoted all his powers. But if he is not willing to accept this position, his remedy is easily found. Let him resign a station so irksome. If he prefers (as of course he does) not to adopt that course, true manliness would dictate a full and unreserved submission to the law and a thorough execution of it. He cannot make his situation any less humiliating by venting his spite upon subordinate officers whose only offence is that they have cheerfully executed laws to which he only grudgingly submits.

As was not wholly unexpected, the Democrats of the West have raised the standard of repudiation, and propose to conduct the next political campaign under its folds. Their plan, as propounded even by such a man as Mr. Pendleton, is to pay off the five-twenty bonds by a fresh issue of greenbacks, which is very like paying them off in draughts of spring water, so as to relieve the country of the burden of the interest. The beauty of the plan is, that it would relieve the country of the burden of the principal, too, as the probabilities are that after the operation the outstanding greenbacks might be bought in at the rate of one cent in nickel for each dollar bill. The advantages of such a conversion must, therefore, be apparent to the most obtuse financier. However, we would go far further than Mr. Pendleton. We see no good reason why the Government, when issuing greenbacks for the payment of the five-twenty bonds, should not also present each head of a family with five thousand dollars in the same medium. In this way every man would be placed in possession of more money than nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand ever had before, and much discomfort and discontent be removed, and the forebodings of the European aristocrats as to the future of our working classes be forever silenced. The Democratic party has, during its career, supported slavery, secession, and foreign interference. It only remains for it to become the advocate of polygamy in order to have sounded every known depth of political infamy.

*Harper's Weekly*, in replying to our comments on Mr. Phillips's assertion of the negro's claim to office, alleges that we "asserted the inferiority of the negro race." This is a misapprehension. We predicated nothing whatever as to the natural capacity or status of the negro race. What we did predicate of it was inferiority of achievement. In other words, we asserted not that it was capable of less, but that it had accomplished less; and we maintained that inasmuch as no white man receives the prizes of life for anything short of performance, it would be unfair, as well as inexpedient, to give them to the black man for mere promise or aspiration, and would injure nobody so much as the black man himself. We advocate, and shall always advocate, equality for him before the law, and shall do what we can to remove all social prejudices which throw obstacles in his way to social success which the white man has not to encounter; but we shall always oppose, in his interest as in that of public morality and good government, the bestowal on him, as a matter of charity or because of his lowly condition, of public honors and rewards which white men have to win with hard labor of hand or brain.

The Presidential exposures of the Radical plots get every day more and more amusing. The last phase of the affair consists of affidavits from Benjamin Wood and Roger A. Pryor, denying all connection with it. We recommend Mr. Johnson to systematize the business, and establish a "Bureau of Exposure," with a Chief Perjurer and two assistants, a Concocter of Damaging Statements, and a Forger of Letters, with the necessary clerks, errand-boys, and supernumeraries. At present the work is bungled through the imperfect distribution of its duties, and the Radicals are laughing in their sleeves.

Gen. Pope has at one stroke weakened the strength of the reactionists in his district, and helped in an equal degree the party of Congress. Loyal newspapers had already the Government advertising; now they are to get State and municipal too, which are taken away from "newspapers which are, almost without exception, opposing reconstruction and obstructing and embarrassing civil officers appointed by the military authorities in this district in the performance of their duties, by denunciation and threats of future penalties for their official acts." The punishment is not too severe, even if some of the papers go under for it, and it is well deserved. To a few obstinate, shortsighted, and tolerably malignant editors we are indebted for most of the delay in settling the terms of readmission, and they have suffered, perhaps, as little as any class at the South in the overthrow of the Confederacy. They have, on the contrary, received immunity denied to braver men who fought us once and for all, and who are now,

though disfranchised and beggared, submissive, orderly, and unrepining. The Southern press has ever been a proof of the mischievous qualities of an instrument of progress when wielded by demagogues without principle, in a community not half enlightened and unable first to obtain the truth and then to distinguish it from falsehood.

Professor F. W. Newman has been calling attention in England to the danger of a general revolt against marriage on the part of women, unless their social and political disabilities are removed. The movement has, it appears, begun here. He says he has "private information from Americans, who state what they know," that "in some cities of the North—nay, in accomplished and pure-hearted circles, free from any perturbations of religious fanaticism—the essential injustice of the marriage laws is driving women to defiance of them." "A high-minded lady," he says, will, in these cities, tell her lover she will be his, if he pleases, but marry him she will not, because she will not incur the legal yoke. Professor Newman, we regret to say, has on several occasions of late given evidence that he is the victim either of some enterprising and plausible American wag or impostor. He was afraid a year ago that Mr. Johnson would order Grant to disperse Congress, and would call Lee to Washington at the head of the Confederate troops to support him, but this last vision far surpasses that one in absurdity. There is doubtless considerable dissatisfaction with their condition "amongst the women of simple and pure-hearted circles" in Northern cities, but it is not so much from hostility to the institution of marriage in itself, as from the difficulty of entering into wedlock at all with the right sort of men and the right kind of prospects. That there is in any decent circle in any city a leaning in favor of concubinage, is an hallucination. The number of divorces unquestionably increases, but they are mostly obtained at the instance of the husband, or through his bad conduct. A little reflection would convince any intelligent man, one would think, that women will always be, in every civilized country, for physiological reasons, on the whole opposed to anything which tends to make the sexual relation uncertain or precarious, because they find it, once dissolved, more difficult to renew satisfactorily than men do, owing to the earlier and more rapid loss of their personal attractions. When marriage fell into disuse in ancient Rome, it was because the men, not the women, had grown tired of it.

We are bound to admit, having since received a full report of Mr. Curtis's speech on female suffrage in the New York Convention, that he did not advocate female suffrage as a natural right, and that, on the contrary, he confined himself strictly to grounds of expediency, in a very clear and able summing up of nearly everything that can be said on the *pro* side of the question. Anybody who read the replies made to him must be devoutly thankful, as we are, that Mr. Curtis is in political life—we were going to say, no matter what he advocates.

The Reform bill has at last passed in England, the Lords having surrendered all their amendments except one—which establishes a kind of experimental representation of minorities, by allowing voters in places having three or more representatives only to vote for two out of three, or three out of four, of the members. Mr. Bright and the extreme Radicals are violently opposed to this experiment—first, because it is pretty certain to cause a Radical loss in all the cases in which it is to be tried; and, secondly, because he considers the non-representation of minorities a sentimental grievance, and believes that representation, far from doing them any good, will simply enable them on important occasions to paralyze the majority. There is no question that this last objection has more force in it than any other that is made to minority representation. Fancy the Democratic minority fully represented in Congress during the late war. Of the effect of the bill on the constitution of the House of Commons or the character of representation, nothing will be known till 1869. It is now no secret that Mr. Bright and many others of the leading Radicals are greatly dissatisfied with the whole bill, strange as it may seem, not because it does not go far enough, but because it goes too far. Mr. Bright's idea was to enfranchise



for the present only the intelligent artisans; a measure of household suffrage he did not contemplate, inasmuch as this introduces a large body of persons whom, in their present state of intelligence, the Conservatives and the rich will be able to buy or influence. He and his fellow-laborers are now satisfied that the Tories have stolen a march on them, and that the design of the present bill is to create a large voting rabble to be led to the polls by the landlords or bought up by the "new men." The chances that any education likely to be immediately available, will produce much effect for some time to come, the Liberals do not consider very great.

The rumors of war between France and Prussia are stoutly contradicted by the *Moniteur*, which ascribes a strictly normal character to the military preparations in France of which the Cable newsman has been telegraphing us such alarming accounts. But there can be little doubt that both France and Austria do anticipate, and perhaps at no very remote date, a struggle in which Prussia and Russia will probably be ranged on one side. The Pan-Slavist demonstrations in Russia during the past year have been nearly as alarming to Austria as her Christian demonstrations during the past forty years have been to Turkey. Emissaries are hard at work in Servia, Bulgaria, and among the Austrian Croats and Bohemians, spreading the idea of Slavonic brotherhood, and deputations from Slavonic societies in each of these countries have been received and entertained with great cordiality in St. Petersburg. The prospect which probably looms up awfully in Austrian eyes is the triumph of Russia on the Danube and the Bosphorus, and the absorption of all Germany and Hungary in Prussia, and the relegation of the Hapsburgs to Switzerland as private gentlemen. Hence the meeting of the French and Austrian Emperors, and, what is of even more significance, of the French and Austrian Empresses. The Kings and Emperors have hitherto visited Louis Napoleon very freely, but the ladies have kept aloof; but Eugénie has now at last made her way into really exclusive "court circles."

A number of "Garibaldian" volunteers, who went to Crete some months ago, have come home, and have been publishing dismal accounts of the character and conduct of the insurgents, with whom they advise their countrymen solemnly to have nothing more to do. They say they are robbers and murderers, and have no political feeling whatever. Mr. Skinner, a correspondent of the *London Daily News*, however, who was for some time in the Cretan camp, and has come home, tells a different story, and insinuates that the Garibaldians are humbugs. It is a great pity somebody from the United States has not visited the scene of action and sent home trustworthy accounts of what is going on. We know the Cretans are suffering terribly; but what we want to know is what are their chances of success, and on this point we have no information worth mention. All our news of the war consists of rumors picked up in Canéa and Athens, which are about as valuable as the news brought in in the early part of our own war by the "reliable gentleman" and the "intelligent contraband."

It is calculated that the wages of skilled mechanics in the various towns of France range from one to two dollars a day. The general rate of wages in France has increased about forty per cent. in the last fifteen years, while the rise in prices has not been over thirty per cent., leaving the laborer a real advance in wages to the extent of about ten per cent., and this advance, it is confessed, is largely due to the laborer's persistence in demanding, through strikes and combination and other modes of agitation, a larger share in profits. It may be, no doubt, readily shown that the immediate result of any one strike is loss, just as it might be shown that the immediate result of the War of Independence was loss; but in the long run there is no question that strikes affect both public opinion and the rate of wages. Yet it is only within the last three years that combinations to influence the rate of wages have been lawful in France—a striking illustration of the small amount of connection there may be between equality and individual freedom. In aristocratic Eng-

land such combinations have been lawful ever since 1825. Co-operation in France is proving more and more of a success. The association of masons, for instance, has done remarkably well, but it is found, as might have been expected, that the great difficulty with all these associations is want of capital. Therefore saving must precede co-operative production, and nothing helps saving so much as co-operative consumption through co-operative stores.

The Mexican Government is still holding Maximilian's body, it is said, for a ransom. We have always thought this a peculiarly appropriate mode of replenishing the treasury, and have little doubt the finance minister, whoever he is, will adhere to it. In this way the state makes as much out of Maximilian as if his life had been spared, and at the same time is freed from all anxiety about him. Low as the condition of the "Latin race" is, it still retains some sparks of originality.

The wretched fate of the Jaffa colonists, about which there has been some conflicting testimony, is clearly established by their piteous appeal forwarded through the American consul at Alexandria. One of the first announcements by Atlantic telegraph was the arrival of these Maine farmers in Syria, and it seemed as if the laying of the cable had somehow made the earth revolve contrariwise, and the new course of the sun affect the course of empire. The enterprise naturally sprang from religious fanaticism, but that shrewd, well-to-do Down-East Yankees should turn their backs on the rich plains and productive mines of the West, to invest their savings in an agricultural venture in Palestine, would have been predicted by scarcely anybody. They are vouched for by our consul at Jerusalem as honest and industrious folk, and appear simply to be defective in intelligence; at least, one cannot help thinking that common-school wisdom would have saved them from being duped, both spiritually and materially, by so unscrupulous a pretender as the Rev. Mr. Adams.

Mr. Bowen of *The Independent* denies very emphatically that he attempted to "blackmail" Messrs. Lockwood & Co. by threatening to publish an article condemnatory of the St. Paul and Chicago Railroad bonds unless these gentlemen consented to advertise them in his columns. He alleges that the proof of the article fell into their hands before publication by accident, and was published two months after the advertisement was solicited. As we commented on this transaction at the time, we cheerfully give him the benefit of this correction. But he does not deny what we consider the weightiest of the charges against him: that he offered to insert an editorial puff of the bonds on condition they were advertised in *The Independent*—or, in other words, to advise his simple country subscribers to invest their savings in them—although he at that time knew absolutely nothing of the character of these bonds and had made no enquiry about them. A month later he found out, but only by accident, that they were worthless, so that had Messrs. Lockwood & Co. given him the advertisement when he first asked for it, he would, on his own showing, have recommended his readers to put their money in a species of security which he now declares is and always has been a swindle and delusion. We confess frankly that we look on the issuers of worthless stock or bonds as occupying very much higher moral ground than the publisher of a newspaper who offers for pecuniary consideration to come forward and advise those who trust him to buy them, without making any investigation into their character. *The Independent* is not the only offender in this matter, but it has been one of the worst—and a more detestable offence against the ignorant and unwary we do not know of. The nuisance can only be abated by the public itself. We earnestly urge all insurers and investors not to pay any attention whatever to advertisements of stocks or bonds or insurance companies to which they see even a veiled allusion in the editorial columns of the same paper. Readers ought, the minute they perceive that an advertisement is accompanied by an editorial puff, to button up their pockets as carefully as if they found themselves hustled by a suspicious crowd on the platform of a street-car.

## Notes.

## LITERARY.

A WORK of more than local value, and which should be in the possession at least of every Congregational church in the country, is the volume of Minutes, etc., of the Maine General Conference for 1867. To the usual reports, tables, and items will be added a record of the churches and ministers of the State, connected with the Conference, from 1672 to 1867, with occasional references from 1643 to 1672. Of the more than three hundred churches thus catalogued the name of each will be given, with the date of its organization. To the names of the one thousand pastors will be joined the principal dates of their ministry, their present or latest known residence, and the particulars of their decease and age. To complete this historical sketch a list of churches will be arranged in the order of organization, and an index of names will facilitate reference. The record and minutes together will make about 140 pages, and orders are solicited in advance to defray the increased cost of printing. Exclusive of postage, fifty cents will procure one copy, one dollar two copies, two dollars six copies, if addressed to Rev. E. F. Duren, Bangor, Maine.—Messrs. Routledge & Sons announce already some of their Christmas publications: a new volume of poetry, "The North Coast," by Robert Buchanan, illustrated handsomely by Dalziel Brothers; "Original Poems for Infant Minds," reprinted uniformly with the "Little Lays for Little Folks," which appeared last year; "Froissart's Chronicles," with the original illuminated plates; a revised edition of "Hogg on the Microscope," with colored plates; a new edition of "Men of the Time," to be edited by George Townsend; a new work on billiards, by William Dufton; "Studies of Shakespeare," by Charles Knight; and a "Robinson Crusoe" in monosyllables, with thirty-six colored plates.—Messrs. A. Simpson & Co., publishers for the Agathynian Club, apologize for the delay in the appearance of "The Proverbs of Erasmus," for which Mr. Philles's introduction is still wanting, and announce "The Works of the Famous Antiquary, Polidore Virgil," which the title-page of Simon Miller's edition (London, 1663) avers to contain "the original of all arts, sciences, mysteries, orders, rites, and ceremonies, both ecclesiastical and civil," and, naturally, to be "useful for all divines, historians, lawyers, and all artificers." The actuary of the Agathynian Club, Mr. B. W. Bond, has removed to 60 Duane Street.

—We are reminded by the pamphlet of the "Associated Alumni of the Pacific Coast," which held its fourth annual meeting at Oakland, California, June 5, 1867, how real and how increasingly firm is the bond between California and the eastern half of the Union. This organization was happily devised to unite the graduates of colleges, universities, law, medical, and theological schools, and the national military and naval schools, who happen to be brought to the land of gold. The members are almost exclusively American, but the catalogue enumerates several graduates of European universities. On the above-mentioned occasion the Rev. Andrew L. Stone, D.D., well known as the once popular pastor of the Park Street Church, Boston, was the orator, and was subsequently chosen president for the ensuing year. His theme was "The Relation of the College to the State," and it was treated with so much force and eloquence that we wish it might have a larger and a separate circulation. For it was a "plea for culture" against the irreverence of a new, ambitious, and self-confident community, proud of its growth and a little forgetful of what it owes to the past—its true ancestor, however obscured—a plea against materialism and in favor of the ideal, whose court is the college; and an argument for the college as the guardian of republican principles, lifting the poorest citizens to opportunities of usefulness and honor, the conservator of peace, in which alone letters can flourish, the trainer of patriots who "are not enfeebled by philosophy," but rather strengthened to lead in the defence of their land, the teacher of the practical arts and the fruitful methods of all industry, the systemizing support of popular education, which it "stimulates and elevates, drawing up the general level toward its own crested summits." One paragraph so well expresses our own thought in speaking recently of the political value of good intentions that we must quote it here:

"It would be a grand omission in this argument if we failed to remark that the element of light alone is insufficient to establish and ensure public tranquillity. One other element must be added. *Light and Love must be in partnership for this work.* Light without Love is but archangel ruined—the baleful flame of a mighty but malign intellect. *Love without Light is blind, and may do the work of Hate.* Love to prompt, Light to guide—these together do their work well, and make it permanent and abiding. Associate them in human enterprises, and they are strong as God is strong. Light and Love come into bridal union in the Christian College."

—Miss Jex Blake was careful to entitle her book "A Visit to some American Schools and Colleges," but her reviewers have not all remembered the partitive. Thus, one who writes in *The Pall Mall Gazette* of July 16 concludes that in American colleges "the religious element is very prominent—far more prominent than in any of our universities, though perhaps not more so than it is in some of our Dissenting colleges." But, using the word in its primitive signification, it was precisely *our* dissenting colleges—Antioch, Oberlin, and one or two further West—that Miss Blake visited. A more remarkable statement ensues:

"This prevalence of religious exercises is a characteristic of their colleges in contrast with ours, as is the almost entire absence of physical recreation. *Athletic exercises and sports appear to be almost unknown to the youth of America.* For boating, cricket, rackets, football, and all the gymnastic exercises in which the boys and young men of this country delight, they appear to have no taste."

We cannot answer for "rackets," though perhaps the people of Worcester can, but the other sports mentioned we seem to have heard of in connection with "the youth of America," especially collegians. Where both sexes are educated together, there may be a tendency to renounce exclusive sorts of amusement and exercise: "the utmost physical recreation which the students of Oberlin indulge in is a country walk, and this"—though we very much doubt it—"is of rare occurrence." This, says Miss Blake, gave the students a "general under-baked look," but their manners she highly approved. Speaking of our public schools, the reviewer caps the climax of naïveté by repeating gravely Miss Blake's remark, that "it is very common to see the children of *members of Congress* and of the richer classes learning side by side with those of laborers and artisans"! And we only wish it were universally true, as it is in some States, that "every child of a certain age is compelled to go to some school or other."

—One swallow does not make a summer. Nevertheless, human capacity is measurable only by its extraordinary and exceptional manifestations. Shakespeare, Socrates, Newton, Bonaparte, Beethoven, are the outposts of human achievement, and each people has its representative man or men to mark the possibilities of development for the humblest individual. This rule applied to the negro race would procure it greater justice than it has yet received. Pushkin for poetry, Dumas for fiction, Douglass for oratory, Toussaint for generalship and administration, Banneker for science, are some of the examples of first-rate ability shown by men of African descent, often with small enough opportunities. To these may be added the late Ira Aldridge, the player, whose return to his native land after the European distinction which he had gained was much to be desired, and was but a few weeks since confidently anticipated. As *Othello* he would undoubtedly have surpassed all his competitors, who resort perforce to burnt cork and black gloves. Both in comedy and in tragedy his talent was conspicuous. He was not without honor save in his own country. With no peculiar gift of language, he traversed Europe from the Volga to the Irish Sea, performing generally if not always his part in English, and yet satisfying his audiences by his action. Bayard Taylor saw him play in perhaps as *bizarre* surroundings as could have been contrived for him: "a mulatto Macbeth, in a Russian theatre, with a Persian and Tartar audience!" This was at the great fair at Nijni-Novgorod, described by Mr. Taylor in *The Atlantic Monthly* for January, 1865. Aldridge he represents to have been—

"A dark, strongly built mulatto, of about fifty, in a fancy tunic, and light stockings over Forrestian calves. His voice was deep and powerful; and it was very evident that Edmund Keap, once his master, was also the model which he carefully followed in the part. There were the same deliberate, over-distinct enunciation, the same prolonged pauses and gradually performed gestures, as I remember in imitations of Kean's manner. Except that the copy was a little too apparent, Mr. Aldridge's acting was really very fine. The Russians were enthusiastic in their applause, though very few of them, probably, understood the language of the part. The Oriental auditors were perfectly impassive, and it was impossible to guess how they regarded the performance."

In the dagger-scene, Mr. Taylor goes on to say, Mr. Aldridge was "quite equal to Forrest;" and "he certainly deserves an honorable place among tragedians of the second rank." Perhaps in more favorable circumstances a higher opinion might have been expressed.

—An humbler but more remarkable illustration of negro capacity is to be found in the person of Said, of whom Mr. Swinton writes from Charleston to the *New York Times*, styling him "a negro pundit." The history of this man is certainly curious. He is a native of Bornou, a Mohammedan kingdom in Central Africa, and was the son of a cavalry chief in the royal army, who was killed in war with a neighboring nation. The boy Said was kidnapped at fourteen by Bedouins, carried to Tripoli, sold to a trader, and by him sent to Constantinople. His first position was that of pipe-cleaner to



Reschid Pasha, minister of foreign affairs. Some years later, in 1852, he was transferred to Prince Menzikoff, then Russian minister plenipotentiary at the Sublime Porte, and on the breaking out of the Russian war he returned with the prince to St. Petersburg, and remained in his service for about two years. Again transferred to his son, who was making the grand tour, he visited almost every country in Europe till 1859, when he came to the United States. A short visit to Hayti satisfied his curiosity in regard to that country. In 1863 he enlisted in the Fifty-fifth (colored) Massachusetts regiment as a volunteer, serving in South Carolina till the close of the war. Being then destitute of employment he hired himself out as a plantation hand, till discovered by persons who appreciated his attainments, and who secured him a school on one of the Sea Islands—St. Andrew's apparently—in which he has had great success. Said knows, more or less perfectly, his native tongue, Arabic (which is learned by the better classes in Bornou), Turkish, Russian, Greek, German, French, Italian, English, and Hebrew. The last-named is his latest acquisition, made a few months ago with the aid of a grammar, dictionary, and Bible procured him by his friends. He reads and speaks most of the languages enumerated, and with all has a more thorough acquaintance than by ear alone, his practice being to study the grammar of each as opportunity offered. While in the army he became a convert to the doctrines of Swedenborg, and has eagerly read all of his writings within his reach. There is no mistake about his race. "He has the thoroughly marked African type of face and skull, with woolly hair and black skin, and he shows the savage aspect the more pronouncedly from the fact that his face is covered with the tribal marks." He is yet young, not forty, and may live to be, if not vice-president, at least minister or consul to foreign parts. It would be touching to witness an examination for the post at St. Petersburg between Said and a competitor like Minister Clay.

—The London *Publishers' Circular* for Aug. 1 repeats the announcement that Charles Dickens will shortly visit this country and give readings from his works in our principal cities. By way of exchange for Artemus Ward, Mr. Arthur Sketchley, whose humor is invested, so to speak, in the Brown Family, and more particularly in Mrs. Brown, is to leave for America in the course of the present month with a view to lecturing in public. It is possible that a clever delivery may render tolerable an hour's discourse from that rather unreadable "British female."—There are but two or three notable publications for the latter half of July as recorded in *The Circular*. One is Col. Churchill's "Life of Abd-el-Kader," compiled partly from French military memoirs and partly from the ex-emir's own dictation (Chapman & Hall). Macmillan publishes the first volume of Prof. Goldwin Smith's course of lectures on the political history of England—"Three English Statesmen." Prof. John Dawson edits, from the posthumous papers of Sir H. M. Elliot, "The History of India as told by its own Historians," the first volume embracing the Mohammedan period (Trübner).—Mr. Murray's list of fall publications is, as usual, rich in valuable and standard works. Among them are a sixth and cheaper edition of Earl Derby's translation of the "Iliad," a "History of the French Revolution, 1789-1795," by Prof. Von Sybel, of the University of Bonn, translated by Walter C. Perry, of which only two volumes out of the four will appear this autumn; "The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication; or, The Principles of Inheritance, Reversion, Crossing, Inter-breeding, and Selection," by Charles Darwin; "A History of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew," based on a personal examination of documents in the archives of France, by Henry White, who professes to have removed many obscurities and misconceptions; "The Huguenots, their Settlements, Churches, and Industries in England and Ireland," by Samuel Smiles; volumes 3 and 4 of "The United Netherlands," by Hon. J. Lothrop Motley, completing the work, and including an index—from the death of William the Silent to the Twelve Years' Truce, 1609; "Studies of the Music of many Nations," by Henry F. Chorley; "A Dictionary of Christian Antiquities," "Classical and Biblical Atlas," and "The Student's Manual of Ecclesiastical History," edited by William Smith, LL.D.—Messrs. Sampson Low & Co. are to reprint Dr. Holmes's "Guardian Angel," Mr. Beecher's "Norwood," a condensation (much needed) of the Rev. J. Doolittle's "Social Life of the Chinese," and Ross Browne's "Land of Thor." They will also publish Prof. Agassiz's "Life and Explorations in Brazil," in two volumes, with illustrations, and "A New Story of American Life and Adventure," by George Catlin, with numerous illustrations.—Messrs. Hurst & Blackett are to publish the Countess Guiccioli's (Mme. de Boissy's) "Recollections of Lord Byron."—Mr. Edward Dicey, whose work on America, written during the rebellion after a personal visit to this country, showed him to be a careful observer (not entirely accurate, though; for in a recent review of Mr. Hepworth Dixon's "New America" he ventures to assert of the Mississippi Valley that it is so uniformly level

that a man set down in Colorado could not tell from the landscape whether he was there or in Kentucky), has made into a book some late letters to *The Telegraph*, and called it "A Month in Russia during the Marriage of the Czarevitch" (Macmillan). It contains, among other things, an account of his trip to Moscow and back, and, we are sure, must be eminently readable, and not a little instructive.

—M. Alfred Maury, in a recent lecture drawing a parallel between France and England of the *ancien régime*, sums up the present difference between the two countries, not inaptly, as follows:

"Are you, then, rich, are you strong, are you sufficient unto yourself, without asking help of anybody?—go to England. If you are condemned to earn your bread by the sweat of your brow, by painful exertions, in dependence upon others, go to France. In France all griefs are understood and comforted. It is best to be rich in England and poor in France."

Readers of "The Initials" will remember a similar judgment at the close of that story, where Hamilton says to Hildegard in their new English home: "After all, a poor man really can enjoy life in Germany: it is only a rich one who could do so in England."

—M. Littré ("Études sur les Barbares et le Moyen Age," Paris: Didier) shares M. Guizot's depreciation of the importance of the German element in French civilization, but far surpasses him in attributing to the Church the sole agency in developing modern society from the ruins of antiquity. Even feudalism is denied to the conquest of Gaul by the Teutonic tribes, whose migration is regarded by the author as an unmixed evil. It was, in his view, the aristocracy of wealth which had already paved the way for feudalism before the arrival of the barbarians. He advances also the singular opinion that the ages of faith ought to be described by Catholics, the approach of the Reformation by Protestants. This would be like crowning Napoleon's "Life of Caesar," or adopting in Northern schools Confederate text-books on political geography, or M. Duruy's Maximilianized *Carte mexicaine* in the capital of Juarez. Besides, the contrast between the two periods exists only in the perspective of centuries, since the transition covered the space of years. To which, for instance, will belong the work on which Cesare Cantù is now engaged—the Italian heresies and heretics?

—The hymns of peace inspired by the Great Exposition, including that for which Rossini composed the music, performed before the distribution of the medals, have been published, and do not differ in wretchedness from those which great events in all countries are sure to engender among the poetasters. A French journal is reminded by them of a comical incident which happened years ago. In 1811, Monsieur Gérin, who for forty years was director of the *caisse* of secret funds, received orders to pay five thousand francs to a poet who had written a cantata on the birth of the King of Rome. The refrain of this cantata was: "We swear to conquer or to die for the noble King of Rome!" In 1821, at the birth of the Duke of Bordeaux, the same poet sent in the same cantata, having only altered the name to be celebrated by it. This time Gérin had to pay only three thousand francs. But when the Count of Paris was born, the same cantata appeared for the third time, except that now it swore to conquer or to die for Helene's son. Louis Philippe economically granted only two thousand francs. A few days after the February Revolution the immortal cantata was on hand again, swearing, with admirable flexibility, to conquer or to die "on the ground of the fatherland." The republic also paid a thousand francs. Unfortunately M. Gérin died before the birth of the present Imperial prince, so that it is not known if the ode has not on this occasion also done duty and reaped its golden reward.

—Château-Gaillard on the Seine, in Normandy, is perhaps unrivalled for the variety of associations attaching to it: as a military fortress of remarkable strength and admirably chosen position, as a well-preserved relic of mediæval architecture on which M. Viollet le Duc has bestowed the most patient and faithful researches, as the work of Richard the Lion-hearted, and as a favorite subject for Turner's pencil. All these points are elaborated very agreeably by a writer in *The Saturday Review* for July 27, who dwells particularly on the causes which led to the construction of the fortress contrary to the plighted word of its royal builder, on its importance in the chain of the defenses of Normandy against Philip Augustus, and on the consequences of King John's failure to relieve it when besieged by the French monarch, who finally took it. The first consequence was that Normandy slipped from the English grasp into the hands of its rightful possessors. The second was, to use the writer's own words, "the ruin of a system as much as of a camp. From that dark donjon, from those broken walls, we see not merely the pleasant vale of the Seine, but the sedge flats of our own Runnymede."

## THE LIFE AND DEATH OF JASON.\*

No narrative poem comparable with this in scope of design or in power of execution has been produced in our generation. By this work Mr. Morris wins a secure place among the chief English poets of the age. The production of such a poem is not only proof of a rare individual genius, but the sign of the abiding vigor and freshness of our literature. Mr. Swinburne has ventured in *The Fortnightly Review* to greet this work with the highest praise, but in doing so he unconsciously passes condemnation on his own poems. A sharper contrast could hardly be drawn than that presented by the methods of treatment of a classic theme followed by one and the other poet. The manliness, the straightforwardness, the reserve of feeling which distinguish Mr. Morris's work are the very opposite to Mr. Swinburne's feminine passionateness, extravagance, and self-exposure. Mr. Morris is imbued not only with the form of the pagan legend, but in as great a measure with its spirit as is perhaps consistent with the modern intellectual temper. He has a strong sense of the dignity and proportion of art, and he treats his theme not as a Greek poet would have treated it, but as an artist aware of the impassable barrier set up between the ancient and the modern moods of feeling and manner of expression. Pouring his old wine into new bottles, he preserves the perennial freshness of its genuine flavor.

"The Life and Death of Jason" belongs to the same class as the "Odyssey." Like that it is a poem of fable, romance, and adventure. In these days, to venture on a narrative poem of more than ten thousand lines is a bold undertaking. The art of story-telling grows more uncommon and more difficult as the world grows older. Stories belong to childhood, and the youth of man. The inventions of later days fail in the essence of story. To tell a good story a man must choose an old one, with the outline of which he has himself long been familiar, and which other men heard first when they were first waking to the wonders of life. It is the twice-told tale that delights the old no less than the young. The poems which are in any real sense popular, the poems which have become a part of universal literature, are all either simple narratives or narratives in a dramatic form. The "Iliad" and the "Odyssey," the "Divine Comedy," the "Nibelungen Lied," the old Ballads, "Paradise Lost," are all illustrations of this fact, and Hamlet and Faust appeal to men as much through their story as through the delineation of character and experience for which the story affords room. All men care to know what other men have done and suffered; it is but the few who are much interested in what other men have thought and felt. For the thoughts of men change from age to age, and feeling has different modes in each generation; but the deeds of men are the concrete forms in which their thoughts and feelings take shape, and awaken a sympathy such as cannot be aroused by the mere utterance of passion or reflection. The woes of Prometheus, the wanderings of Ulysses, the fury of Orestes, the journey of Dante, are types or symbols of universal experience, and have an interest not limited by time or bounded by race.

The most popular poems of our own day show how strong this story-loving instinct still remains. "The Lady of the Lake" has ten readers for one of the "Prelude;" "Evangeline" and the "Idyls of the King" are read and re-read, and will be read long after "Voices of the Night" and "In Memoriam" have taken their place among the purely literary records of the sentiment of an age that is gone.

But to tell an old story well is an art which few poets have possessed; and we doubt whether Mr. Morris has told so well the old story which he has chosen to repeat that his version of it will take its place among the everlasting works of the poets. The critic cannot absolutely forecast the verdict of the future; but even if Mr. Morris has failed to win the perennial fame which few poets succeed in winning, he has at least shown the possession of faculties such as few in any time surpass.

It is a great merit of his work that, in this period of self-consciousness, of morbid introversion, of exaggeration of the interest of individual feeling and experience, he has told his story, with but very slight exception, objectively, with simple regard to its own development, and with no direct expression of the emotions or thoughts its course awoke in himself. And he has, moreover, shown one of the highest qualities of the poet in the vividness of imagination by which he has reproduced scenes remote from experience with all the distinctness of reality, and invested imaginary characters with the natures of living men. The most marked characteristic of his poem is its picturesqueness; there is scarcely a page that does not give a picture to the eye; and this becomes at once a merit and a defect, for in the limited compass of his story the variety of pictures cannot be thus numerous without involving an occasional repetition not of details, but of

what, in the language of pictorial art, is called motive. Mr. Morris's landscapes have frequently, underlying their diversity of detail, a general similarity of outline and of tone; his descriptions of persons and incidents might here and there be interchanged without apparent discordance. Every landscape, every description is clear, almost every one is finished and beautiful in itself, but there are too many which differ only in those minor points which, while they indicate the distinctness and truth of the poet's vision, yet do not serve to give a strong enough impression of absolute variety. There is in his poem something of the prolixity of a mediæval romance, and in this is its weakness. Though there is no single page to which, standing alone, praise might not belong, yet the general effect of the poem, and, we regret to believe, its permanent interest, would be increased by the omission of many of them, or at least by the condensation of many into a few. Each reader would, it is not improbable, select different passages as not adding to the effect of the work; the poet himself could alone determine what is least needful to the impression he has sought to produce.

Of Mr. Morris's general conception of his theme, his delineation of his characters, and of his picturing of special incidents, there is little to be said but praise. Only on one point does he seem to us to have failed to conceive justly the real condition of his story—this is the character of Medea, and the feelings of Jason towards her. Where he has followed most closely the original legend and its natural suggestions he has been most successful; where he has departed from it he has at best achieved only a doubtful success. It is dangerous to vary from a model set by such artists as the Greek poets from whom the story of Jason and Medea has come down to us. Although in Mr. Morris's Medea the union of the beautiful and lovely woman with the fell sorceress is occasionally admirably presented, yet, with a tendency easily explicable by the general direction of modern sentiment, he has been led to dwell too strongly on her lovely womanhood, and has not reproduced the awful and abiding sense of her magic art, and of her ruthless nature subdued to what it worked in, which alone can sufficiently account for the desertion of her by her lover, who owed to her both his life and his glory. In the mingling of fear with fascination, of loathing with love, are the secret of Jason's feeling to her and the explanation of her own misery. She loved as a woman, but even in her love she had the pitilessness of a sorceress. A poem such as this is not to be appreciated by such extracts as can be made from it in a brief notice, but we can at least give a specimen of the picturesqueness which makes its pages a gallery of fair scenes, colored by the hand of a master. Here is a description of the palace of King Eetes:

"The pillars, made the mighty roof to hold,  
The one was silver, and the next was gold.  
All down the hall; the roof, of some strange wood  
Brought over sea, was dyed as red as blood,  
Set thick with silver flowers, and delight  
Of intertwining figures wrought aright.  
With richest webs the marble walls were hung,  
Picturing sweet stories by the poets sung  
From ancient days, so that no wall seemed there,  
But rather forests black and meadows fair,  
And streets of well-built towns, with tumbling seas  
About their marble wharves and palaces;  
And fearful crags and mountains; and all trod  
By many a changing foot of nymph and god,  
Spear-shaking warrior, and slim-ankled maid.  
The floor, moreover, of the place was laid  
With colored stones, wrought like a flowery mead;  
And ready to the hand, for every need,  
Midmost the hall, two fair streams trickled down  
O'er wondrous gem-like pebbles, green and brown,  
Betwixt smooth banks of marble, and therein  
Bright-colored fish shone through the water thin."

The description of the island of Circe, with the fine imaginative conception of the victims of her magic arts and of the empty shades whom she made the agents of her enchantments, the description of the beach of the Sirens and of the garden of the Hesperides, might all be cited as instances of the full and easy power of the poet in picturing nature as she shows herself under various aspects of beauty. It is plain that he is a lover and student alike of nature and of art. There is nothing borrowed or at second-hand in his work, and his lines have often a simple freshness which recalls the charm of Chaucer, or a rich fulness which reminds one of the sweetness of Spenser.

The tragic interest of the story rises towards the end, and all the tender feeling and fancy of the poet are quickened into higher expression as the gloom cast by the shadow of impending and irresistible fate darkens round Jason and Medea. The exulting joy of Medea, having compassed the death of King Pelias, and secured the triumph of her love, is finely contrasted with the bitterness of her woe when deserted by him for whom she had dared so much. At first,

"O love!" she said, "O love! O sweet delight!  
Hast thou begun to weep for me this night?"

\* "The Life and Death of Jason. A Poem by William Morris." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1867. 16mo. pp. 307. (Reprinted from the London edition.)



Dost thou stretch out for me thy mighty hands—  
The feared of all, the graspers of the lands?  
Come, then, O love! across the dark seas come,  
And triumph as a king in thine own home,  
While I, the doer of this happy deed,  
Shall sit beside thee in this wretched weed;  
That folk may know me by thine eyes alone  
Still blessing me for all that I have done.  
Come, king, and sit upon thy father's seat,  
Come, conquering king, thy conqueror love to meet."

But when, long afterwards, she knows herself deserted of Jason, she says:

"Would God that Argo's brazen-banded mast  
Twixt the blue clashing rocks had never passed  
Unto the Colchian land! Or would that I  
Had had such happy fortune as to die,  
Then when I saw thee standing by the Fleece  
Safe on the long-desired shore of Greece!  
Alas, O Jason! for thy cruel praise!  
Alas for all the kindness of past days!  
That to thy heart seems but a story told  
That happened to other folk in times of old;  
But unto me, indeed, its memory  
Was bliss in happy hours, and now shall be  
Such misery as never tongue can tell."

We have no disposition to point out the occasional carelessness of rhythm and rhyme, the too frequent recurrence of certain epithets, and other minor faults which injure here and there the structure of Mr. Morris's verse. They are faults which a little care would remove, leaving the poem remarkable among contemporary works for its simplicity and strength of diction.

The American edition of the book is neat, but disfigured with errors of the press which its publishers should hasten to correct. For instance, on p. 43 a line seems to have dropped out after "More than those others whose crowned memories." On pp. 49 and 51, Amphytrion is four times misprinted Amphytrion. On p. 143, "And round her panting side his fingers steal," is travestied by the substitution of "painting" for "panting." On p. 254, the line in a passage quoted above, "Still blessing me for all that I have done," is rendered unintelligible by substituting "him" for "me." There are other hardly less serious blunders.

Mr. Morris himself commits one curious anachronism, as we suppose. When, after the gain of the Golden Fleece, Medea urges Jason to haste in their flight, the poet makes her say:

"Haste, then! No word! nor turn about to gaze  
At me, as he who in the shadowy ways  
Turned round to see once more the twice-lost face."

But Orpheus was himself one of the Argonauts, and not till long after the return of the expedition was Eurydice lost to him.

#### JEAN INGELOW'S NEW VOLUME.\*

If Miss Ingelow's pretty reputation can stand against the assault she has made upon it in this volume, it is of firmer fabric than we suppose. The "Story of Doom" is a name with a double meaning, such as the authoress is fond of giving to her compositions, for it signifies, besides a most fantastic romance concerning Noah, his wife, their contemporaries, the ark, and the deluge, the swamping of Miss Ingelow's frail poetic bark. In the course of this story Noah is represented as saying of Adam:

"Oh! as for him,  
It was for this that he fell oft would stop,  
And, lost in thought, stand and revolve that deed,  
Sad muttering, 'Woman! we reproach thee not;  
Though thou didst eat mine immortality.'"

And so the unhappy reader of this volume, if he have a tincture of charity in his nature, will full often stop and mutter sadly:

"Woman! we reproach thee not,  
Though thou dost waste my happy mortal hours."

"Shall bleat of lamb," asks Miss Ingelow with great ingenuousness, "console one for the foregone talk of God?" With utmost sincerity we answer, Certainly not. Noah's wife tells him:

"I do remember that there came one day  
Two of the grave old angels that God made,  
When first He invented life (right old they were,  
And plain, and venerable); and they said,  
Rebuking of my mother, as with hers  
She sat, 'Ye do not well.'"

We take the part of one of these grave old angels and, addressing the authoress, say, "You do not well."

The flattering commendations that Miss Ingelow's former volume of verse received, and its surprising popularity in America, have plainly been injurious to her by inspiring her with misplaced confidence in her poetic abilities. The faults which lay obvious to criticism in her earlier productions are all intensified in her new collection of verses, while such excellence as then in some degree redeemed them has almost disappeared from her work. The want of a controlling sense of form and artistic proportion,

which most of the poetry written by women displays, and which was always conspicuous in Miss Ingelow's poems, is painfully apparent throughout this volume. Loose, imperfect, half-formed fancies hold the place that should be held by the clearly-defined images of genuine poetry, strainings after effect are mistaken for the reaches of inspiration, and poor and barren thought is matched with versification equally poor.

Even in narrative, where Miss Ingelow formerly succeeded best, she now fails. The poem called "Laurance"—the very spelling of the name betrays the affectation of the writer—is a feeble imitation of Tennyson's modern idyls, and its plot is too commonplace for a cheap novel. It is, indeed, by her conscious or unconscious imitations of other poets that the limits of Miss Ingelow's poetic perceptions and faculties may be most clearly marked. She gives us one piece in "humble imitation" of Milton's "Ode on the Nativity," another in imitation of the "Old Style," another in the "Old English Manner," all of which, by their diversity from their models, we would rank among what the writer calls her "Contrasted Songs;" and so when she falls into imitation of Mrs. Browning or Tennyson the resemblance is confined to a trick of manner and never approaches to real similarity of style.

We have no question that this volume will find admirers. What books do not find admirers in these days when all the great, indiscriminating public reads? In the extracts from the favorable English notices of the volume, which the American publishers have printed for the enlightenment of newspaper critics, we find *The Athenaeum* speaking of "the lyrical sweetness, the tenderness of sentiment, and the brilliancy of description which are to be found in many of the poems," while *The Imperial Review* asserts that some of these poems "are full of much subtle beauty, and through them runs an undercurrent of pathos and tenderness." There are readers who positively prefer bad to good poetry. We have known worthy people who have set Pollok's "Course of Time" above "Paradise Lost," and it is certain that Mr. Tupper's "Proverbial Philosophy" is far more widely read than the poems of Mr. Browning. It is sometimes urged that these books and such as these have their use in meeting the wants of a class incapable of appreciating those of a higher order, and that they even serve the purpose of stepping-stones to better things. There is no doubt a modicum of truth in this notion, and the Genial Critic may at once conciliate the publishers, his own interest, and his conscience by lavishing favorable epithets upon productions of doubtful abstract merit but against the purely moral tone of which nothing is to be said. But criticism has a higher office than this. The direct moral influence of a book may not be bad, while its indirect moral influence, by lowering the standard of taste or by perverting the correct judgment of its readers, may be very injurious. Of no class of writings can this be so confidently asserted as of poetry. Few persons are competent to pronounce upon the merit of poetry that does not offend by open violation of the rules of art. But the difference between good and bad poetry, innumerable as the varieties of each may be, is a difference not of degree but of kind. No man by reading Alexander Smith or Walt Whitman will be better fitted or more inclined (save on the principle of reaction) to relish Shakespeare or Wordsworth; the puerilities of Tupper form no introduction to the masculinity of Dryden or Lowell. The taste may be subtly corrupted, the judgment insidiously weakened, and it is for sound criticism, aware of the dignity and responsibility of its office, not to shrink from exposing pretension, nor to be content to leave to time the task of bringing a swollen reputation to its just size. The Laura Matilda school has vanished; L. E. L. and her imitators are forgotten; and unless Miss Ingelow does better in her future volumes than in this her name will not wait long for peaceful oblivion.

#### PRISON DISCIPLINE IN THE UNITED STATES.\*

AMONG the many questions to be disposed of in the Constitutional Convention, we bespeak its proper share of attention for that of Prison Discipline. A topic to which Howard, Beccaria, Bentham, and Livingston gave so much thought in its earlier aspects, and which has since occasioned so much legislation and so many controversies, will be found to have been carried far beyond the crude notions which so long stood in the way of the improvement of prisons. There are certain principles, long ago laid down, which have now become wrought into the whole fabric of penal law. *Pæna in hominum emendationem statuitur*, says Cicero, which, being interpreted into the modern phrase, reads, "The end of punishment is the

\* "Report on the Prisons and Reformatories of the United States and Canada, made to the Legislature of New York, January, 1867. By E. C. Winsor, D.D., LL.D., and Theodore W. Dwight, LL.D., Commissioners of the Prison Association of New York." Albany, 1867. (pp. 546.)

\* "A Story of Doom, and other Poems. By Jean Ingelow." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1867.

reformation of the criminal." *Quem panitet peccasse, says Seneca, pene est innocens*; that is to say, a convict who repents and does the first works shall have his sentence shortened, or be pardoned altogether. This is the alleged basis, and, to some extent, the actual practice, of prison discipline in nine-tenths of the civilized states of the world. But, unfortunately, theory and practice in this matter are often so utterly divorced that it needs some plain statements like those of Dr. Wines and Professor Dwight in the volume before us to show us how, with a perfect theory, we may have the most outrageous administration of prison affairs.

This report grew out of the appointment of certain committees, by the New York Prison Association, in 1865, to investigate the prison systems and the administration of criminal justice in the several States of the Union. These committees included other names, but the chief labor was imposed upon Dr. E. C. Wines and Professor Theodore W. Dwight, who undertook to visit and examine all the important prisons of the loyal States, and to report their condition and management. The first part of their task was completed in 1865, but the preparation of the report was delayed during the whole of 1866 by the magnitude of the work, and by the fact that the same gentlemen, with others, were in that year appointed to investigate in detail the affairs of the New York prisons, which had not been included in their examination in 1865. The results of this last-named commission were also compiled by Messrs. Wines and Dwight, and published, along with much other interesting matter, in the twenty-second annual report of the Association. At the same time they were carrying through the press the volume before us, which did not finally appear till some weeks after the annual report, and may be said to complete and summarize that. We have, then, in this volume the sum and resultant of two years' diligent work, performed by two of the most competent persons in the country for the part assigned them. And the book comes forth at a time when many events have combined to give an unwonted interest to the subject which they discuss.

It is well known to all who observe the statistics of our prisons that during the latter years of the war they were, in general, scarcely half-filled. From various causes the commitments fell off, especially of male convicts, and though in most places there was a great increase of female convicts, yet the aggregate of both sexes fell far below the average of 1860. But no sooner had the war closed than this was all changed. Crime among women instantly began to diminish, while it was alarmingly increased among men. At the Auburn Prison there were less than 200 commitments for the year ending April 1, 1865—the last year of the war; in the following year there were more than 400. At the Massachusetts State Prison in the last year of the war there were 80 commitments; in the first year of peace 259, or more than three times as many. At the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania, the number of commitments before the war closed was about nine in a month; after the war it ran up to thirty a month. In Illinois, in 1865, there were about 575 State prison convicts at Joliet; in 1866, they had increased to 1,100; the commitments being at the rate of fifty or sixty a month. Nor was this startling increase of crime the only thing to be noticed. It was found in nearly all the State prisons that from 50 to 75 per cent. of the new convicts had served in the army or navy, where many of them had borne a good record. These two facts—the growth of crime and the imprisonment of soldiers—have compelled many persons, hitherto indifferent, to concern themselves in prison discipline.

The instant this began to be done, it began also to be seen how much the subject had been neglected in America of late years. The great experiment of the Irish convict system, which had been going on for a dozen years with extraordinary results, was scarcely known here, and had not perceptibly influenced the administration of our prisons, though it was revolutionizing those of England and the Continent. Our prison industries which had been our boast in earlier times had fallen into bad ways, and the prisons in consequence were very costly, without returning any compensation for their cost. In some of the States, and notably in New York, political influence had secured the control of all prison appointments and had degraded the standard of qualification shamefully. There was found to be no proper inspection of the lower prisons, and no sufficient classification of the prisoners anywhere. All these evils and many more Messrs. Wines and Dwight describe as existing in a greater or less degree in all the States visited by them. They pay Massachusetts the compliment to speak of her prison system as the best in use, but they have serious fault to find with that. They cannot accept the estimate which the Philadelphians place upon their separate system, but they declare that it ought to be partially adopted elsewhere. Upon the whole, they recommend the Irish system as the most perfect and the most successful yet known, but they regard some modifications of it essential to its success in America.

Such are their conclusions in general; but the fulness of statement and

the wealth of suggestion presented in the Report cannot even be conjectured from our meagre abstract. Nearly all the topics which have ever been treated by writers on prison discipline are here touched upon, and most of them at some length. The statistics both of prisons and reformatories so far as they are given are valuable, while the abstract of penal legislation and administration in several of the States, and the recorded experience of magistrates in regard to pardons, are most curious, and, at the same time, quite important. The arguments used and the evidence brought forward against the contract system of labor in the prisons, though less extended than in the annual report above referred to, are yet clear and convincing. On this and other points the two volumes make an encyclopedia of research and information which must be consulted by all who would study the subject, and can only be superseded by equal diligence working in a more extended field. When, for example, the whole circuit of the American prisons shall have been made, and their condition shall be compared and contrasted in mass and in detail with that of the prisons of Europe, the volumes which record so vast a labor will exceed in value those now given to the world, just as these surpass all that have gone before them. But who is sufficient unto these things? "Enough," said Rasselas to Imlac; "thou hast now convinced me that no man can ever be a poet." The researches of the Prison Association show, among other things, how endless is the task at which its members toil.

*Ilias und Odyssee und ihre Uebersetzer in England, von Chapman bis auf Lord Derby.* Von Dr. Wilhelm Henkel. (Hersfeld, 1867.)—An interesting pamphlet on the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," and their English translators, from Chapman to Earl Derby. In his introductory remarks Dr. Henkel shows that language and literature in England were, during the last three centuries, enabled to develop themselves much more undisturbedly and gradually than in Germany, where internal dissensions and unhappy religious wars, begetting an inevitable dependence upon foreign nations, too often impeded the sound and popular growth of literature. The French models never exercised the influence on English literature which they did during the eighteenth century in Germany. English scholars, moreover, abandoned the Latin as the language of science and built up a national language and literature much earlier, whilst in Germany the national literature inaugurated by Luther's translation of the Bible fell soon after the Reformation into a lamentable decay. As late as the middle of the eighteenth century the educated classes looked for literature across the Rhine, and Frederick the Great, therefore, was not without reason surprised to make acquaintance in Gellert with the first famous contemporary poet in that "barbaric" German tongue. But even in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth we find quite elegant English versions of classical authors—as, for instance, those by Grimwald of "Cicero de officiis" and of Xenophon's "Cyropædia," and that of Earl Surrey, who introduced the blank-verse into English poetry, and contrived to give it extraordinary polish by following the Italians. It is precisely this outward polish and ease of treatment that have ever distinguished the English translator of Greek and Latin works from the German translator. It might almost be said, that between Pope's translation of Homer and Voss's there exists the same gap as between the philosophical and theological studies of the English and of the Germans. English translators generally strive to please by freedom of movement and agreeableness of expression, whilst German translators study to penetrate their author to the smallest details, and with anxious accuracy adapt themselves to the very words of the original, with the abundant aid of scientific researches. Hence it cannot be denied that the classics have in the English language been more popularized and have exercised a more lively influence than in the German language, and this especially with historians and orators. In studying the old histories of constitutions they have everywhere found analogies with their own history, and Demosthenes has had for a Pitt, Burke, Fox, or Brougham far more practical value than for the German scholar.

In the second chapter of his book the author reviews the Homeric translation of George Chapman, who was during his lifetime severely assailed for selecting the iambic measure of fourteen syllables used for ballads, and who replied to his adversaries in no complimentary strains. Dr. Henkel acknowledges, with Hallam, that this translation is "often exceedingly Homeric," and that "by his own innate Homeric genius Chapman has thoroughly identified himself with Homer." Dryden, "happily," produced no translation of Homer, but inaugurated by his stiff but elaborate translations of Virgil, Juvenal, Perseus, Horace, Ovid, and Theocritus the epoch of French influence. Then came his follower Pope, whose translation of Homer was excellently characterized by Richard Bentley's *mot*: "It is a pretty poem, Mr. Pope, but you must not call it Homer." "We find that



the facility of Pope's rhyme, the false ornaments which he attached to the ancient Greek, and his departure from the nice discriminations of character and speech which prevail in Homer, are faults now universally admitted." Less fault Dr. Henkel imputes to Cowper's translation, published seventy years after Pope's, because he avoided too great license, extrinsic adornments, and the sins connected with these. Coming to the more recent translators, who have searched for a new metre, the author concedes that neither hexameters nor dactyls are adapted to the nature of the English language, but iambs alone, in spite of Matthew Arnold's contending for the use of the original metre in English translations. He combats vehemently Arnold's opposition to the blank-verse, and cites Lord Derby's translation, which came very near to the tone of the original, in support of his opinion. He ridicules Mr. Arnold's idea, "that there is no reason, in the nature of the English language, why it should not adapt itself to hexameters as the German language does; nay, the English language, from its greater rapidity, is in itself better suited than the German for them;" and cites against this assertion Klopstock's "Messias," Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea," and Voss's translation of Homer, in which the hexameter is used with greater dexterity than by any English author, as is made to appear from quotations. The little book gives a very clear and condensed review of the whole controversy.

*Anti-slavery Addresses of 1844 and 1845.* By Salmon Portland Chase and Charles Dexter Cleveland. (London: Sampson Low, Son & Marston; Philadelphia: J. A. Bancroft & Co. 1867.)—In the incessant conflict with slavery, few on the Northern side have had the leisure, fewer still the forethought, to preserve the documents illustrative of every stage of it. No library that we are aware of contains even a fair collection of the pamphlets, speeches, and papers which were the efficient means of the thirty years' agitation ending in secession, civil war, and emancipation. This elegantly printed little book is the private enterprise of a prominent actor in the strife and the author of one of the addresses, now in England. In what quarter he anticipates a remunerative sale we do not know, but he has none the less rendered a service to history for which all of us can afford to be grateful. The two addresses convey a vivid conception of a very important era in American politics: that, namely, just following the founding of the Liberty Party, and just preceding the admission of Texas and its demoralizing train of events—from February 22, 1844, to June 12, 1845. The Philadelphia address is a better electioneering document than Mr. Chase's, and in it one may read the astounding proofs of the control of the Government by Southern interests from its foundation. Who passed the tariffs which have caused us so much odium in British eyes, and which, we venture to say, are even now regarded by the majority of well-educated Englishmen as the real cause of the rebellion, is also shown with great clearness; and as the freedom of the country from direct taxation up to 1861 is not often considered in connection with the tariff, we venture to make some quotations from the appendix:

"According to the Constitution *direct taxes* must be apportioned among the several States in the ratio of their representation; and as the slave representatives would increase this number, it would also increase the amount of tax in the same ratio. . . . When, therefore, at the close of the last war [1812] our country was in debt about 120 millions of dollars, the South resolved that this should not be paid by direct taxes, but by duties laid upon imported goods. Accordingly the tariff of 1816 was established. It was then emphatically a Southern measure. That tariff, for instance, admitted the articles used for the clothing of slaves at a duty of *five cents* on the dollar's worth, and charged *twenty cents* on the dollar's worth of finer articles used for the clothing of free laborers, thereby making the honest labor of the Free States pay *four* dollars, while the slave labor of the Slave States paid but *one*, for clothing.

"The Free States, however, with their industry and skill, soon accommodated themselves to this state of things, and their manufactures, by degrees, rose to a height of great prosperity. But no sooner was our national debt paid than the South, ever watchful of its purpose, resolved to strike a death-blow at the prosperity of the Free States; and, accordingly, the celebrated 'compromise' tariff of 1832 was devised and carried; in which the 'compromise' was, as it ever has been, *all one way*. Nothing is clearer than that the slave power put on the tariff in 1816, and took it off in 1832. They have done just as they pleased."

As these addresses were designed to further the election of James G. Birney to the Presidency, they have something to say about the rival candidates, J. K. Polk, of the Democrats, and Henry Clay, of the Whigs. Mr. Clay was probably as devoted, and certainly as useful, a friend as slavery ever had; yet his support of the tariff is generally ascribed to disinterested motives. His character, notably as a duellist, is here exposed in a way to make Mr. Greeley indignant, but the indictment might easily have been made twice as strong. Mr. Cleveland has added a letter of his own to the Philadelphia Bible Society, resigning (rather than be dropped at an approaching election) the presidency of that body, to whom his authorship of

the Pennsylvania address had given offence. This document belongs to a different series from the foregoing, and one which shame would persuade us to destroy, but which truth compels us to preserve—we were going to say, religiously.

*What is Free Trade?* An Adaptation of Frederick Bastiat's *Sophismes Economiques*. Designed for the American Reader. By Emile Walter, a Worker. (New York: G. P. Putnam & Son.)—Bastiat's "*Sophismes Economiques*" was translated twenty years ago, during the free-trade agitation in England, by Mr. Porter, the author of "*The Progress of the Nation*," and was widely circulated, under the title of "*Popular Fallacies regarding General Interests*." It contains probably the most telling statement of the leading principles of the free-trade theory ever published, and is perhaps unsurpassed in the happiness of its illustrations. Mr. Walter has apparently adopted Mr. Porter's translation, and has adapted it to the use of the American reader by introducing American allusions and examples instead of French or English ones, and notably by setting up Horace Greeley as a target for the satire and sarcasm. Horace Greeley plays the part of the devil for most preachers of free-trade in America, but, luckily for himself, seems to enjoy his bad reputation, and roars and lashes his tail, apparently in perfect content with his part. Why Mr. Walter calls himself "*A Worker*" it is hard to say. Whatever the reason, it looks like a piece of affectation. There is nothing singular or distinctive in being "*a worker*" in America. He ought as well call himself "*A Man with Two Eyes*."

*Early and Late Papers.* By W. M. Thackeray. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields.)—Those young gentlemen who have picked up Thackeray's sucked orange and have grown cynical because it is dry and tasteless, and who suspect there is no more juice anywhere, and who begin to entertain a melancholy admiration for their own power of suction, will do a very good thing for themselves if they will read this little book of essays. Thackeray is seen in them at his best, as we think; in his easy, essayistic chair, writing without the set purpose of the satirical novelist, and appearing sensible, kindly, and manly, and, if now and then a little bit affected, not more so than is permissible and pleasant in the essayist. We hope Mr. Fields, if it is to him belongs the credit of the labor as well as of planning this enterprise, will take the necessary pains to collect other similar volumes, for which the materials must be quite plenty. We have delayed mention of the volume, but no harm is done, for it is not a book for a season, but one that will be loved and praised years hence—perhaps as long as wit, delightful humor, knowledge of the world, and friendliness find admirers.

*Essays by Dora Greenwell.* (New York: George Routledge & Sons.)—These five essays are gracefully and spiritedly written, and are evidence that the mind of the author is accustomed to play lightly on the surface of things, but they show no capacity for deep thought on any of the themes discussed. It is a religious book; for, although its subjects are not all such as would necessarily to another person than the author suggest religious reflections, yet the devotional turn of her mind has, as in such matters is generally the case, caused her to view them all from the religious standpoint. To minds which hold to the chief Protestant dogmas and forms and are yet unable to find in them all the sentiment which they desire, this little work will seem, as will also a former book by the same author, "*The Patience of Hope*," almost as the gate to a new world of beauty; although to one accustomed to Catholic books of devotion it will appear tame and cold, while it may very possibly strike some as being tedious and aimless.

*A Sketch of the Route to California, China, and Japan, via the Isthmus of Panama.* (San Francisco and New York: A. Roman & Co.)—This book promises to be useful and amusing to every traveller, and we are inclined to recommend it on both these heads. The reader—as if to impress him with the magnitude of the journey—is supposed to start from Europe, and to have preferred the route by the Isthmus to that by the Cape of Good Hope. All that he needs to know, in order to get on smoothly, is then told in these chapters; but they were composed before the *Colorado* had made her first trip to Japan.

A useful companion to this guide is the "*Chinese and English Phrase-book*" published by the same firm, having both the Chinese characters and their English pronunciation, adapted to the wants of merchants, travellers, and families. With this and the Japanese phrase-book published by Messrs. Hurd & Houghton one may boldly step ashore at Yokohama or Shanghai.

*Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.*

*All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.*

### THE CRISIS AT WASHINGTON.

MR. JOHNSON seems to be fully determined that the process of reconstruction shall not go on smoothly if he can possibly prevent it; and the means which he is adopting to prevent it would be a very interesting subject of study if they were the result of any particular line of thinking into which even a small number of persons are likely to fall. But the truth is, that he is a kind of man who need not be looked for in a high place in a constitutional government once in a thousand years, and who could not have got into a high place in this one without a series of accidents such as are not likely ever to occur again. The qualities which are cultivated in the politicians of a representative government are invariably pliability and adaptability, or, in other words, talent in finding out what is practicable or what the majority want to have done, and in doing it. It is only once in many centuries that a statesman like Pericles appears who has not only the art of executing the will of the majority successfully, but of easily winning the majority over to his way of thinking. So that the lesson which the politician of a free country has most constantly impressed upon him is the lesson of yielding, of compromising, of postponing indefinitely, of accepting not what he wants but what he can get, of often cheerfully going without anything at all in order to preserve his influence undamaged; the lesson, in short, that in a popular government strength of will is rather an encumbrance than a help. A politician who has not learnt this lesson hardly ever reaches any place of trust or profit, but passes through life with the reputation of an impracticable grumbler.

Now, Mr. Johnson has not learnt it, and yet, as he has often told us, he has passed through every office in the people's gift, from that of village alderman up "to the chief magistracy of this great country." It would not be difficult to account for this by an investigation of the society in which he has passed the greater part of his life. The simplicity, rudeness, and terrible personality, if we may use the term, of Southern life, and the unusually prominent part which mere passion plays in all slave societies, would alone furnish a sufficient explanation of it. He no doubt believes firmly that what he is now doing in Washington is showing strength of will, which he considers a very fine thing; but what he is in reality showing is simply a vindictive temper, which his political training does not seem to afford him the least assistance in curbing. His will is in reality very feeble, as was shown by the readiness with which he suffered Congress to set aside his "policy," and the hesitation he has exhibited in resisting any of what he considers the encroachments on his authority. The taunts or encouragements of his friends have at last driven him into action, but the action consists simply in what may be called the expression of spite against individuals. It is not at all likely that he hopes or intends through the removal either of Stanton or Sheridan to effect any real change in the government of the South, or change the terms of admission to the Union for the seceded States. What he does hope to do, and is pretty sure of doing, is to annoy a number of people who have annoyed him. That his policy goes no deeper than this—that, in fact, he is not capable of any deep policy at all—is, we think, abundantly proved by the scheme which he devised for bringing the impeachers to shame, and the nature of which has just been exposed. In order to throw discredit on them, he goes to a convicted perjurer actually serving out his sentence in jail, and perhaps the man least likely to be believed of any of whom the public has ever heard, and gets him to trump up a story on every word of which wild improbability is stamped, and gets the "Acting Attorney-General" to embody it in an official report, evidently in the belief that it will crush his enemies. Now, this is the act of an embittered and unscrupulous man, but it is not the act of a deep man; and no man whose

bad passions find expression in this way is likely to be very dangerous. Mr. Johnson evidently is not the stuff of which great traitors or conspirators are made.

Nevertheless, though not a dangerous man, he is proving himself pre-eminently a mischievous man. He is mischievous in several ways. One is, that in the petty persecution on which he has now entered, he is likely to furnish several gentlemen with claims to the Presidency as "martyrs" simply, and which, if the Presidency were intended to be, or should be, the reward of simple suffering in a good cause, would be well founded. But the Presidency ought to be nothing of the kind. Mr. Johnson himself is the result of this mode of compensating martyrs, and it is generally admitted that he is not a satisfactory result; and in this time of confusion and uncertainty nothing can well be more unfortunate than the distraction of the public mind by candidates who owe their appearance in the field mainly to the fact that they have received persecution at his hands. Nobody can deny, for instance, the brilliancy and value of the services which both Sheridan and Stanton have rendered to the country; but then, when either of them is now talked of for the Presidency—and they both begin to be talked of a good deal—it is not so much because of the brilliancy and value of their services as of Mr. Johnson's hostility to them. In like manner, in the discussion that is now going on touching General Grant's claims, and which every day grows fiercer, his mental and moral qualities are treated as of secondary importance, the absence of hostility to him on the part of Mr. Johnson occupying the first place.

Another way in which Mr. Johnson is proving mischievous is in retrieving the reputation of the impeachers. It is not impossible that Congress may find itself compelled, if he perseveres in his present course, before it has done with him to go to extremes, and actually depose him from office. But Congress cannot do this without indirectly raising the reputation of the men who got up the impeachment cry a year ago, and who, as politicians, are perhaps as little qualified to inspire or direct a great public movement in troublous times as any set of men who have ever secured places in the government of a free country. In the wisdom or discretion of Messrs. Ashley and Butler the public has now little confidence, and we believe the success of such men in deposing the President, on such evidence as they have had to offer at any time during the last year, would have been a real misfortune which our children's children would have had cause to rue; and yet if Mr. Johnson has yet to be impeached or deposed, the effect will be to secure the impeachers a high reputation for sagacity and foresight, and to endow them with an amount of influence which, during the next year or two, they are almost certain to abuse.

Mr. Johnson is mischievous also in this—that small, feeble, and insignificant though he be, the precautions which it is necessary to take against him are likely to become precedents, and to lead to serious changes in the character of the Government. The powers which Mr. Lincoln was unavoidably allowed to assume during the war, combined with the goodness of his character, had the effect of greatly exalting the executive, and correspondingly depressing the legislature. It was his seeing these powers wielded by his predecessor that betrayed Mr. Johnson into the errors which have caused the present difficulties, and it is his assumption of them which has led to his being despoiled not only of his usurped, but also of most of his ordinary, authority. The executive, as Congress has now left it, is but a shadow of its former self, and should no reaction take place in the public mind, it will doubtless soon begin to seem useless to keep it up in its present condition. It would be absurd to pay an ordinary man, selected for almost anything but his wisdom, \$25,000 a year, with a free house, for writing out his opinions on the affairs of the nation once a year in a message, and this is really all that the President now has to do. To be sure, he has still the power of "suspending" officials, but it remains to be seen whether even the exercise of this power under certain circumstances may not lead to his own deposition. We may be sure that if Mr. Johnson should be turned out of office either for suspending Stanton or removing Sheridan, none of his successors will ever exercise even this shadow of authority unless he has Congress overwhelmingly on his side, and if Congress has to be overwhelmingly on the President's side to enable him to exercise his functions, what becomes of the inde-



pendence of the executive, and why not abolish it altogether, and let the legislature do as the English Parliament does—elect its own prime minister, and turn him out when he fails to give satisfaction?

We are not finding fault beforehand with any measures which Congress, when it meets, may deem it advisable to take for the public safety. We feel quite satisfied, after all that has happened, that it will neither do more nor less than may be necessary. But we think it desirable that Congress as well as the public should remember that whatever is done with regard to Mr. Johnson will serve the purpose of a precedent as regards his successors, and that, therefore, the effect upon the structure of the Government of all steps taken in his case should be carefully considered. This is not a time to legislate under the guidance of enthusiasts like Mr. Stevens or Mr. Boutwell, or partisans like General Butler; and by enthusiasts we mean simply persons whose feelings overbear their reason, and by partisans persons who are more anxious for victory than for either truth or justice.

#### A SUGGESTION TOUCHING CONTRACTION.

THE currency of the United States is depreciated. It requires to-day one hundred and forty dollars of legal tender notes to buy one hundred dollars in gold, and yet a greenback bears on its face a promise of the United States to pay a dollar—that is, 24½ grains of gold—to the bearer.

If this is the promise of the legal tender note, why is it that one hundred and forty such promises must be given in exchange for one hundred of the dollars or actual coins, containing 24½ grains of pure gold, which the United States promise to pay the bearer by the tenor of the note? The answer cannot be simply that there are too many greenbacks or legal tender notes. It would make no difference to an individual how many of such notes he held if he knew that he could get the gold for them, except that he would be the richer for each one held by him. Therefore the simple withdrawal of a certain portion of the legal tender notes, or the conversion of a part of them into bonds bearing interest and payable in gold at a certain definite time, would not of itself cause the remainder to bear a higher value in gold. The legal tender notes might be withdrawn by payment or conversion until their amount should be only one hundred million dollars, and yet they might still be at as great a depreciation in relation to gold as they now are, except so far as their withdrawal caused the number or quantity of tokens or measures with which the people pay debts and taxes to be insufficient for these specific uses.

The legal tender note has two functions or elements of value: First, An arbitrary value arising from the fact that it is used as a measure or token for the payment of debts and of taxes. Any man who owes a debt desires to get possession of a legal tender note because it can render him the service of discharging his liability; his desire is entirely independent of any gold or specie value supposed to be represented by the note. Second, The legal tender note has a value because it is a promise of the United States to pay to the bearer at a future indefinite time 24½ grains of pure gold in the form of a dollar.

As to the first function, the Government may be said to have the power to *increase the value* of the currency by the withdrawal of a portion of it, precisely as the Government, by assuming a monopoly of the manufacture of yard-sticks and making an insufficient quantity, could increase the price of yard-sticks, especially if they also enacted that all cloth measured should be only measured by the use of yard-sticks. Practically the Government says to-day, We have created so many million measures of a dollar, and every creditor shall receive them in payment of any debt due him without any regard to the relation of these measures of a dollar to 24½ grains of gold. To-day, with \$400,000,000 of these measures in existence, their relation to gold is one measure to 17 $\frac{88}{100}$  grains of pure gold, but if by contraction the number of measures shall be reduced and the aggregate of transactions or of debts and taxes to be measured shall remain the same, then their *value as measures may increase*, or, in other words, their relation to gold may become 1 measure to 20 grains; but this will be an addition

of value, not a correction of the depreciation of their absolute relation to gold.

The depreciation of the legal tender note is involved in the second proposition before stated. Gold and silver are the only uniform standard of value. The legal tender note promises to pay to the bearer 24½ grains of gold. Why is it depreciated? Because no time is specified for the payment to be made. Would A. T. Stewart's note or John Jacob Astor's promise to pay the bearer 24½ grains of gold be of any value if they did not fix a time on which they would pay the principal, or agree to pay interest? Aside from its function as a measure, the legal tender note is simply a bond, payable at the option of the promisor, bearing no interest. Has it any absolute value? Can it render any one a service? Will A, who owes no debt and means to owe none, and who, therefore, will have no use for the note as a measure, give a bushel of corn or a day's work for a piece of paper which will depend upon the indefinite chances of the future for its being worth 24½ grains of gold?

The problem, then, is not only to increase the value of the greenback by decreasing the number of measures (of the manufacture of which the Government holds the monopoly)—or, in other words, to contract the currency—but also to correct the depreciation of the value of the promise of the Government to pay to the bearer 24½ grains of pure gold for each paper dollar by giving to that promise the element of certainty; that is to say, to fix the date of payment. If this principle should be admitted, the methods would be comparatively simple. Given a surplus of revenue available for the payment of debt, the time or times at which the debt represented by the \$400,000,000 greenbacks might be paid in gold can be fixed with safety. For instance, let the existing issue be called in and a new issue made, which should be legal tender but absolutely payable or redeemable at the end of ten years, such issue to be in classes of \$50,000,000, each subject to be called in class by class at any time within the ten years. Then let the present issue be called in, and others issued bearing interest at the rate of two to four per cent. per annum, legal tender for the principal only, and absolutely payable at a given date. Slowly but surely, and safely, because voluntarily, would such notes be withdrawn from circulation and become absolutely valuable in gold as they approached maturity. Finally, let the present issue be called in and new ones issued, convertible after certain dates, or class by class, into 10-40 five per cent. bonds. Such conversion could create no crisis, because the moment the conversion proceeded so rapidly as to affect the rate of interest very much, the conversion would for the time cease.

In short, the analysis made of the elements of value contained in the greenback would seem to indicate that a certain date of payment should be fixed at such distance in point of time as to be practically safe, with such option for payment at an earlier date as might be found practicable, and also with such liberty given to the holders to convert them into bonds bearing a low rate of interest as would prevent the evils now caused by the enforced use of an exact and unvarying quantity of currency. We say enforced use, because owing to the absolute impossibility of conducting business without granting a credit (it may be only for a few days, but still a credit), and the absolute necessity for the creditor to receive in payment bonds bearing no interest as the representative of his capital, which was previously represented by the commodity which he sold, he must, in order to obtain interest, rent, or profit, buy some other commodity or property, and get rid of his bond.

As matters now stand, certain individuals or corporations are compelled to hold \$400,000,000 of bonds bearing no interest as representative of their property. But no man will hold property which pays no interest, rent, or profit unless he is obliged to do so. Hence he seeks some other property with a hope or chance of gain on that, and therefore he becomes a speculator in spite of himself. Give him the option of a long, safe bond at a low rate of interest. Can the community suffer as a whole if certain individuals take this option? The community will have to pay the additional tax to meet the interest, but it will secure the gain of that increased product of all the commodities for which men work which all men admit to be the result following from the establishment

of a currency of fixed value—that is, a currency bearing a certain and definite, and not an uncertain and indefinite, relation to gold and silver, the two products or results of human labor which have become established by the world's use as a standard of value by which men may exchange services or measure their labor as compared with that of others.

### FEMALE SUFFRAGE AND EDUCATION.

IN spite of Mr. Curtis's eloquent and forcible speech, it is plain that the women of New York are not about to receive the electoral franchise from the Convention at Albany. The prejudices of men in favor of the seclusion of the other sex are still too strong, supported as they are by the indifference of the mass of women themselves. Although numerous replies, some of them amusing enough, have been made to Mr. Curtis's argument, it has not been answered by any one. The chief ground of opposition to it is purely sentimental. Drag not the purity of women into the mire of politics; leave her to the sacred quiet of home; let her find her full development in the duties of the household; let her exercise her gentle but omnipotent sway with other instruments than the ballot; "unsex" her not by bringing her into rude contact with man; she requires protection; she desires not to enter into the hard struggles of life; keep her veiled and apart; such is the ordinance of heaven, such is the eternal law of order. But this is a mere oriental plea. The Turk will not allow a woman to appear unveiled in the street. The Hindoo regards it as the height of immodesty for a woman to be seen walking arm-in-arm with her husband; the proper place of the woman is behind the man. The Chinese insist on bandaging her young feet so that she shall never walk comfortably. Only in this way is the sanctity of the sex to be preserved; only thus can her true place in the social order be secured to her. Our delegates at Albany are still Chinese in their notions. We must cramp the feet of our women; we must keep them veiled for twenty years to come at least. They do not object. They are lovely and powerful because their feet are cramped. If we let their feet grow according to nature, they will become "unsexed," we shall have frightful domestic difficulties, and all sorts of trouble in the State.

But if these are the strongest arguments that can be brought against female suffrage, it is plain that the question has reached such a point that the settlement of it on a right basis cannot be long delayed. Mr. Curtis is not in advance of the better feeling and the better reason of the time. The moral judgment of the more thoughtful portion of the community is already convinced that it is not only right but wise that woman should take her place as the political equal of man; and long-held, inherited prejudices are giving way before the force of reason and the strength of will of those who believe that man has no more right to deprive woman of her share of control of the affairs of state than woman would have to deprive man of his; of those who believe that there is nothing essentially unfeminine in interest in public matters, and that the true relations of the sexes and the just influence of woman are not reached while woman is only virtually represented in our public councils. There is little risk in the prophecy that, if women choose, the next constitutional convention that meets at Albany twenty years hence will hasten to grant to them the right of suffrage, and will feel very little trouble as to its tendency to "unsex" the mothers and sisters, the wives and daughters of the State.

The doubt then will be not in regard to the effect of the franchise upon woman herself, or to her capacity for exercising it beneficially, but, as in every other question of the extension of the suffrage, whether the education of the class seeking it has fitted the generality of the class for its wise exercise. And in this as in every other case, the doubt must be met by considering the exercise of the right itself as an educational process. By the possession of the right to vote, and by the exercise of it, the mass of women will be made as fit to vote as the mass of men are. This fitness is not, indeed, of any high degree. The mass of men have no occasion to boast of any natural capacity to vote wisely. Universal suffrage is good and safe only in proportion to the intelligence of the community. It is but to repeat a familiar truism, which, however, loses no force through triteness, that education, meaning the cultivation of intelligence and character, is the only safeguard

and secure foundation of a democracy in which universal suffrage prevails.

It is not less true that women, as a rule, have been, and still are, less well-educated than men; that their intelligence and character are proportionately less developed by the instruction they receive. The first effort of every woman interested to obtain the full equality of women with men, due regard being paid to the difference of sex and to the consequent difference in some of the functions of life, as well as the first effort of every man desirous not only of doing justice to woman, but of uniting her full power to his for the improvement and elevation of society, so that she may take her due share in the progress of civilization, should be to improve the method and to increase the means for the education of women.

It should be an invariable and fundamental political rule in America that every extension of the elective franchise should be accompanied with or preceded by an increase of the means of popular instruction. Our common-school system by no means fulfils all the need. In the State of New York itself there are many thousand children for whom the State has not provided sufficient or suitable school accommodation. Many of our school-houses are utterly unfit for their purpose, and even unprovided with the first requisites for mere decency. Now, even if there were no prospect of the admission of women to the suffrage, this state of things ought not to be allowed to continue. It is disgraceful, costly, and dangerous. Where the schools are few and cheap, the jails are many and costly. But with the prospect, however distant it may be, of so great an addition to the number of voters, the demand for better provision for the education of women as well as of men becomes urgent. The Convention has no more important duty to perform than to devise and provide remedies for the defects of the existing system of popular instruction in the State, and to adapt it to the actual wants of the time. Two things are required which demand a degree of courage that the Convention, composed as it is of men who are compelled to regard party interests, may not possess. First, every community forming a school district should be required to provide sufficient and suitable school accommodation for every child of the school age in the district. Second, education should be made compulsory. The State has a right to insist that after providing the means for the instruction of every child those means shall be used; it is its duty, moreover, to protect itself, or, in other words, the community at large, from the evils and dangers to which it is exposed by the neglect of individuals to make use of the means provided for the instruction of their children. The particular method of compulsion, whether by fine of the parent or a tax levied by the State on each school district in proportion to the number of children absent from school during a term without excuse, or whatever other mode, is of comparatively little importance, provided only it be efficient. The object is to allow no child, no future voter, to grow up without such instruction as may enable him to learn to vote intelligently. If the State does its duty in the matter of education, there need be no fear of the consequences of the admission of women to the elective franchise. Neither the State nor women would suffer. If women were properly instructed, they might—we see no reason to doubt that they would—vote as intelligently as men; and with education and equality of political right, instead of losing loveliness and womanliness, they would, if we may trust to the lessons of past experience, grow more and more lovely and worthy of love, become more truly feminine, and be no longer the toy and the plaything, but the equal helpmate of man.

### HINTS FOR CONSTITUTION-MAKERS.

BY A JUDGE.

#### II.—THE SUFFRAGE.

UNTIL the beginning of the rebellion there were few men (not professional politicians or office-holders) who took a warmer interest in, or did more work for, the Republican party than the writer of this article. As a practical, though not professional, politician, I gave the question of suffrage some attention, and now venture upon an assertion that will occasion some surprise, but which, nevertheless, I believe to be



materially, if not literally, true—and it is this: Before the war nine out of ten respectable citizens were secretly in favor of a small property qualification—not, however, as a property representation, but to elevate the suffrage and to secure a less corrupt system than that which swayed and carried our elections. And what is strangest is, that this feeling was strongest among the very men who buy and bargain for votes, justifying always their acts by the emergency of the present case and the corrupter practices of the opposing party, but always regretting that men holding the “privilege” which is both a right and a trust, “should be bought and sold like sheep.” This feeling grew strong enough to call forth a proposition that the suffrage be restricted to those who could read and write the English language, and to gain one practical advantage in the enactment of the registry law. It was, however, but an eddy in the stream, for there was a great current setting in the opposite direction, bearing men along against their own convictions, making them speak and vote against their secret wishes, and carrying them resistlessly toward one great principle, which may be defined in the single name of MANHOOD SUFFRAGE.

The Anglo-Saxon race, if not the world, has been steadily advancing toward this end for centuries, and the people of the United States have about reached it. I deem it as certain as any future fact can be, and, therefore, not a subject for discussion here. But when that goal of the great race is reached, there will come what some men will call a reaction, but which, in fact, will be a new movement toward a principle, inferior but only second to the other, without which no system of representation is complete, and that is the *co-ordinate representation of property*.

It is not a new principle that taxes shall be imposed only with the consent of those who bear them. It was the moving cause of *Magna Charta*, of the Bill of Rights, of the Declaration of Independence. It was established at Runnymede and re-established at Bunker Hill. Whenever it has been violated, the violation has roused up the resistance of the sturdy race whose resistance expires only with success, and, whether in America or England, the principle always in the end has been triumphant. It may not be an agreeable fact to contemplate, but nevertheless the State of New York has, in this particular, gone backward, and travelled toward the barbarism of England before her great charter. Whether it is the class above or the class below which imposes a tax without the assent of the taxed, can be of no practical importance so long as the tax is imposed and collected against the consent of those who pay it. Of late years there has been a steady usurpation upon the rights of property, beginning in the great cities and slowly extending throughout the State. Thus, in the city of New York the tax-payer is without power and without representation. The men who impose upon his property the *local* tax, are either the representatives of the non-tax-paying rabble of the city, or the representatives of other tax-payers in other counties of the State. That he has the privilege of throwing his vote against the five votes of his non-tax-paying opponents—that the members of the Legislature are the representatives of the whole State, and hence his representatives, are pretty theories, but of no practical value so long as his property may be voted away by men who neither share in his burden nor can be reached by his vote. If every tax-payer in the city of New York should vote against the imposition of a local tax, the Common Council and the State Legislature might still impose it. Is not this a return to the barbarism of the Middle Ages? King John sought to do nothing more.

The remedy is some centuries old, and has worked well. In a land where the oppression came from above, it required that the tax should be imposed only with the consent of the “Commons;” but it is not material whether the consent be given by the one house or the other, so long as those who bear the burden of taxation are secured the right of representation. Those who contribute the cost of government have a peculiar interest in the government which those who do not contribute anything do not share. It may not be the work of this Convention, but I think the time will come when every person who contributes a part of his earnings to support and carry on the machinery which works for the common welfare will be allowed to vote in his or her true character of tax-payer without regard to *sex* or *color* or *nationality*—when, in short,

the tax-list will be, for one branch of the Legislature, the poll-list, and when all who have paid their share of the common expense shall be maintained in the right of being represented in the government.

The want of this protection has been felt in a manner hardly observed by those who will oppose it. Capital has few votes, and it therefore resorts to the only means which it possesses—it *corrupts*. It does not approach the Legislature with mass meetings or processions, but by insidious agents and degrading influences. It justifies this crime by the old rule of self-preservation. It fights superior numbers with its only arms—money. So long as it is left defenceless, it will of necessity corrupt. No statutes, no constitutional provisions, will ever stop its dangerous progress; the evil will exist while the cause continues.

If this principle could be engrafted on our constitution now, it would disentangle several knotty questions. It would satisfy the only valid demand for female suffrage. It would restore the independence of the great cities. It would elevate and dignify one branch of the Legislature. It would diminish the clashing and facilitate the true compromises between capital and labor. It would assure the foreign capitalist and secure the benefits of foreign capital. It would prevent a long and angry contest, wherein the principle, as heretofore, will be victorious.

#### THE POLITICAL DECLINE OF THE “PERFECT GENTLEMAN.”

WE drew attention some weeks ago to the increasing predominance in politics of the “self-made men,” and of the evolution from them of a new type of statesmen wanting in nearly everything which has from the earliest ages been supposed to be essential to the statesman's character except honesty; but we did not attempt on that occasion to account for the phenomenon. We do not now propose to offer anything like a complete theory of the change; we wish simply to call attention to what we consider one of the most powerful of the many causes which have helped to bring it about, namely, the decline in popular estimation, mainly owing to his own misconduct, of that well-known personage—the Perfect Gentleman. The services which he rendered in the earlier period of the history of the Government were inestimable. He bore a leading part both in the Revolution and in the formation of the Constitution, and, until within the last twenty or thirty years, filled many of the most prominent places in the National Government. In most political contests his chances were considerably better than those of the Poor Boy or the Self-made Man.

We repeat that we do not mean to ascribe his subsequent loss of influence solely to his own degeneration. A variety of circumstances, social as well as political, have contributed to his fall; but the leading one has been unquestionably the decay in his own mental and moral condition, which began to reveal itself when the slavery question forced its way into politics. During the Revolution, and long after, he displayed considerable activity and receptivity of mind, and in his discussions of political questions he generally showed himself in advance of his age, and ready to entertain new ideas. He revealed, in the part he took in public affairs, both a high regard for morals and a strong belief in progress, although he was decidedly conservative in his social tastes and habits. He prided himself considerably on his gentlemanhood, was particular about the company he kept, the clothes he wore, the food he ate, and the manner in which it was served; but then he had a tolerably hearty sympathy with attempts to improve the condition of the race; he believed in its capacity for improvement; he looked forward and not backward; and he still retained strong traces of the creed of the old feudal gentleman, which made the good cause the gentleman's cause, the weaker side the gentleman's side; which made courage the first of his virtues; distinction, and not uniformity, the great object of his ambition; which, in short, was summed up in the formula—*noblesse oblige*.

For some reason or other a great change came over him about thirty years ago; we mean over the Northern variety of him. He renounced his belief in human progress; he lost no opportunity of making known that he thought the world was as good as it was ever going to be, and yet he admitted that as it stood it was a most rascally world. He began to maintain that politics, although a science the knowledge of which was entirely confined to himself, was a science in which no further progress was possible; and though a lineal descendant of the authors of the Declaration of Independence, he betook himself to Aristotle and Sir Archibald Alison, with whose works he declared the canon of political revelation to be closed. He began, too, to get somewhat ashamed of his country, and to affect either the Southern or

European in his tastes, habits, and ways of thinking. When he took the European for his model, he usually eschewed politics altogether and passed much of his time in France and England. Here he dressed with great care, and excited the deepest interest in good society as a man whose refinement had driven him from his home, his paternal mansion being uncomfortable to him by the bad behavior of his democratic neighbors.

When he took the Southerner for his model, he usually got himself up in Tory sociology, and acquired as much ethnology and physiology as was necessary to enable him to fix the negro's place in nature, and cultivated submissiveness and conformity with great industry. He treated his Northern birth as a misfortune, and bore at Southern dinner-tables, and often at his own, with as much abuse of his birthplace and neighbors as anybody thought it worth his while to pour forth upon him. He always travelled in the South with a liberal stock of "Southern principles," which generally meant the absence of any principles whatever of his own, and readiness to accept those of the locality in which he happened to be sojourning. He gradually but rapidly lost all interest in political science, and fell into the habit of considering the Constitution of the United States a complete political revelation, furnishing the citizen with an infallible guide in politics as the Bible did in religion, and the main object of the Constitution he constantly declared to be the prevention of attacks on Southern slavery at the hands of the Northern Democracy. His interest in religion, however, at the same time grew steadily, and he opposed a firm front to the Comtists and the German neologists, but he was very ardent in his hostility to political preaching. All military spirit died out in him. The few signs of it which occasionally appeared took the form of the expression of a desire to put down slave insurrections or fight abolitionists, but then there was nothing very terrible about this, as he was never tired of ridiculing the cowardice and poltroonery of both of these classes of enemies. He last occupied the Presidential chair between 1852 and 1860, and during the whole period conducted himself with such a shocking want of manliness, courage, and truthfulness that good clothes and polished manners got to be associated in the popular mind with moral turpitude and mental imbecility. His messages and other political compositions were long, wearisome bundles of platitudes, to the composition of which either the Poor Boy or the Self-made Man was fully equal, but would for many reasons have been ashamed to write.

When the war broke out the Perfect Gentleman was at his wit's end, and reeled to and fro. If he had known which side was going to win he would have declared for it at once, but it required considerable familiarity with political principles and considerable skill in observation to ascertain which side this was; and as he had long ceased to give any attention to principles, and had no practice whatever in observation, he was for some months in a perfect quandary. He at first took command of the army, with the intention of conducting the war on a plan of his own, which he said was that of the great masters, and the leading features of which were tenderness for the enemy and rigid respect for etiquette at headquarters; but the public, after being taken in by this plan for a little while, got angry and dismissed him. He then retired into private life, and spent his time partly in the country, partly in Europe, supplying thrilling stories of democracy to the European press, and writing letters and pamphlets against the War Power and Emancipation, and studying the Book of Revelations, abusing Abraham Lincoln's manners and clothes, and predicting the triumph of the Confederacy. About this time, also, after having for many years followed in the footsteps of the Sage of Marshfield, he formed a fellowship with the Sage of the Bloomingdale Road—the Honorable Fernando Wood—and combined with that eminent publicist, the Honorable Auguste Belmont, in issuing monarchical tracts on the divine right of slavery, under pretence of diffusing "political information."

Since the war, he has gone through considerable mental suffering, but as yet there are no signs of any great improvement in the state of his faculties. He made a feeble effort to appear pleased when Lee surrendered, but it was impossible to make out whether it was the triumph of the Government or the cessation of bloodshed which gave him most satisfaction, for we omitted to mention that the war, instead of hardening him to slaughter and suffering, seemed to unseal the fountains of his tenderness, and caused him to weep over nearly every battle, no matter which side won. Negro suffering has worn on him horribly, but not so much because of the ignorance of the negroes as from a fear that they will get into "the marriage bed" and attend his evening parties without invitation. He is also somewhat afflicted by the woman's rights agitation, but rather on grounds of taste than expediency, and in fact now regards nearly every public question from a purely sentimental point of view.

The condition of the national finances is just now occupying his attention. He has begun to declare his views upon it at the West. He proposes

that the five-twenty bonds should all be paid off in greenbacks instead of in gold, a new issue being made for this purpose; or, in other words, that we should settle our debts in the same ingenious manner as Mr. Wilkins Micawber used to settle his—by giving our notes payable at some remote and undetermined period, without interest, and reserve to ourselves the power of putting out as many of them as we please. Not that he means to "repudiate;" he is a good deal too honorable for this. He means simply to pay in a commodity which will cost us nothing and be of little or no value to our creditors; and he thinks that by industry and economy, and a strict disregard of the obligations of morality, we may yet be a happy and united people. It is hardly necessary to say that this sort of thing is far above the comprehension of the common people, who have, therefore, in despair given the Perfect Gentleman up as a political failure, and just the least taste in the world of a knave.

## PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, July 25, 1867.

WHILE the press and public of this city are endeavoring to discover the secret political aim which they imagine must have prompted the brilliant demonstration of which the Belgian Volunteers have just been the object across the Channel, majesties, highnesses, and grandees of every number of buttons continue to arrive here "plenty as blackberries," and Mlle. Schneider, whose triumphs as the heroine of Offenbach's merry farce seem destined to indefinite prolongation, and who has received the homage of so many crowned heads that she is in some danger of taking her rôle *au sérieux*, has just taken advantage of the constant succession of high sounding titles at the doors of the Exhibition to play off a little trick whose success has greatly amused and gratified the Parisians. Superbly dressed, and attended by a party of ladies and gentlemen got up in similarly overwhelming style, she alighted at one of the entrances from a magnificent carriage, a few days since, and had herself announced as "Her Highness the Grand Duchess of Gerolstein," an announcement which, of course, created a lively sensation among the policemen there assembled. Accompanied by a stately-looking personage, wearing the green and yellow ribbon of some imaginary order, and followed by the people of her court, the "Grand Duchess" swept in with all the dignity befitting her rank, amidst the profoundly respectful and admiring salutations of the double row of officials who had hastily formed in line to give a suitable reception to so great a lady, and whose salutations she acknowledged by a series of graceful bends of the head that charmed all beholders. But for the resolute refusal of the prime minister, who, while thanking them, in his sovereign's name, for the intended attention, assured them that it was her highness's pleasure while in the building to maintain a strict incognito, they would have organized a detachment of their body to attend her during her visit.

It is now known that the Sultan, though he did not extend much patronage to the shops of Paris, made large purchases at the Exhibition, where, among other things, he bought the entire display of one of the great French glass manufacturers, his order being coupled with the condition that everything should be delivered at the Elysée on the following morning. The manufacturer, with an army of professional packers, spent the night in the building, working to such purpose that, by the appointed hour, the magnificent chandeliers, dishes, vases, dinner services, etc., were all packed and delivered and their places filled with objects so similar that the public had no suspicion of the substitution.

The Queen of Prussia has come and gone. Her first visit at the Exhibition was to the display of the International Society for tending the wounded on the field of battle, and showing the methods and appliances adopted by its members in the carrying out of their work of mercy. The formation of the society in question was suggested by the successful development, on the part of the Sanitary Commission of the United States, of the attempt, first made by Miss Nightingale of Crimean fame, to organize lay help in mitigating the inevitable horrors of the battle-field. It is now placed under the patronage of all the principal governments of Europe, and under the personal protection of several of the sovereigns, among whom the King and Queen of Prussia have been especially cordial in their manifestations of approval and interest. To testify her interest in the aims of the society, the Queen wore, on her visits to the Champ de Mars, the white ribbon with a red cross which serves as the distinguishing badge of the society—which marks, let us hope, the achievement of an appreciable step on the road to "the good time coming" when the people of this slow-to-learn little planet shall have discovered that there is something better to be done in the world than fighting.



An event which also marks, in its way, the substitution of new ideas for old ones is the abolition of imprisonment for debt, accomplished by a recent decision of the Senate and the Legislative Assembly, and in consequence of which the doors of the classic temple of impecuniosity have been thrown open and the inmates of the debtors' prison of the Rue de Clichy have just been set at liberty. The law abolishing imprisonment for debt having been finally passed, after a protracted debate, at half-past twelve at night, and its provisions becoming executable twenty-four hours afterwards, the doors of the Clichy prison remained closed until the recurrence of that hour on the following night. The progress of the bill had been followed with eager alternations of hope and of fear by the hundred and ninety-seven unlucky mortals (three of them women) who had been confined within its walls for longer or shorter periods, and who used to read aloud, day by day, the debates whose conclusion would have so important an effect on their future. The excitement of the prisoners on learning that the bill had passed, and that they would be set free in the course of another twenty-four hours, may easily be imagined. They laughed, wept, rushed into one another's arms, hugging and kissing each other in true French style; leaped, danced, tossed up their caps, sang and shouted in a delirium of delight. "I shall see my wife and children!" "I shall make my fortune!" "I shall see the Exhibition!" "I shall have a walk on the Boulevard!" "Vive la liberté!" "Vive l'Empereur!" resounded throughout the building. The prison authorities made some little addition to the dinner, after which the prisoners went in procession through the building, each carrying a lighted candle. These candles were then stuck in the windows, and while this modest attempt at an illumination was burning itself out, the inmates of the place employed themselves in making their bundles ready for their approaching exit. Exactly as the clocks struck the half hour after midnight, the doors of the prison were thrown open, never to close again upon "debtors," and one hundred and ninety "poor devils" passed out into personal freedom. It appears that the noisy excitement of the earlier portion of the day had died away as the hours wore on towards midnight, and that the exodus was performed very quietly, most of the company expressing their satisfaction that their departure was to be effected under the cover of the night instead of by daylight, in which case a crowd would certainly have gathered to see them go. Seven of the prisoners—philosophers, doubtless, in their way—preferred sleeping in the building, and only quitted it next morning at seven o'clock.

According to present appearances there would seem to be a chance of the world's being treated, ere long, to a lawsuit the like of which has probably never been seen. Your readers, no doubt, have not forgotten the strange stroke of fortune by which Mr. Daniel Home, so well known to fame for his claims as a "medium," was suddenly adopted and enriched by a wealthy old Englishwoman, a widow named Lyon, who gave him £30,000 down, made him take her name, and presented him to her lawyers, bankers, and acquaintances as her adopted son. The sum first given to Mr. Home by Mrs. Lyon, and a second sum which she gave to him shortly afterwards, were part of a sum of £90,000, in consols, which resulted from the accumulating interest, during over half a century, of a sum of money possessed by her before she married, and which her husband had always declared to be her own particular property. It seems that Mrs. Lyon, being an illegitimate child, had always been treated coldly, and even unkindly, by her husband's family, who, rich and proud, resented what they considered as a *mésalliance*. The old lady, therefore, openly declared her intention of leaving all her large fortune, including about £200,000 that had been bequeathed to her unconditionally by her husband, to her adopted son. But this intention appears to have been combated by Mr. Home's friends, who counselled her strongly to leave to her husband's family the portion of her property which she had received from him, and to let whatever provision she felt inclined to make for her adopted son be taken exclusively from the property that had been hers before her marriage. Mrs. Lyon, in making her sudden gift to Mr. Home, whom she had only once seen, and who was made ill by the suddenness of the change thus operated in his position, stated to him, and to all about her, that her deceased husband had appeared to her, and had told her that he wished her to adopt Mr. Home, to give him a handsome income, and to regard him in all respects as her son, the support and companion of her old age. Mrs. Lyon, it should be stated, has long claimed to be a "medium" and taken an active part in the so-called spiritual movement of the day. But though thus stating herself to be *en rapport* with the invisible world, she frequently avails herself of the aid of other "mediums," and thus has made the acquaintance of a young girl who not only professes to be in communication with "good spirits," but declares Mr. Lyon (as he has been called for a year past) to be in communication with "bad" ones. Mr. Home's health being exceedingly delicate, his adopted mother took him, a few months ago,

to the coast of Devonshire, for change of air; appeared to devote herself to him with great affection, and wrote to him, whenever she left him, the most affectionate letters. About six weeks ago, urged to the step by the representations of the young girl referred to, Mrs. Lyon suddenly informed her adopted son that she cast him off, and must have her money back; that the "spirit" which had caused her to adopt him was "a lying spirit" whom he had sent to deceive her with the semblance of her husband; and immediately afterwards caused him to be arrested and thrown into prison on a charge of being about to leave England with money fraudulently obtained from her. Mr. Home's friends, informed of what had taken place, liberated him on bail, and he was removed, more dead than alive, to the house of one of them, where he has been nursed and doctored, and where he still remains.

Mrs. Lyon's bestowments on Mr. Home having been *bond-fide* gifts, it appears that unless the latter voluntarily gives them back to her she can only act against him by throwing the whole affair into Chancery, and proving that she has been the victim of fraud and "collusion;" and as Mr. Home is understood to refuse to relinquish these gifts—as such a relinquishment, say his legal advisers, would be equivalent to an admission of the justice of her charges against his friends as well as against himself—this curious affair may possibly be brought before the world by a regular legal procedure, in which case it is said here, by parties well informed of what is going on in London, that such an array of "respectabilities" will probably come forward to declare their conviction of the reality of the "phenomena" which would form the most prominent feature of the case as will suffice to place the expected lawsuit in the front rank of "*causes célèbres*."

## Correspondence.

### WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I have been longing, ever since I read your article on "Female Influence," for a leisure moment in which to make a few observations to you about it.

I presume it was written by some crusty old bachelor, who never knew the delights of having a wife to dress in ribbons and gauze, "rings and farthingales and things;" and as I am an old maid who never knew the happiness of having a husband to waste the fruit of his toil on me, I think myself the right person to say a word in reply to his severe strictures on my sex. By the way, what a fuss we are making just now! It is well my mother is dead; she would have been ashamed to see so much in print about her sex.

I will consent to the truth of a great part of what is said in the article to which I allude. I confess that women are foolish, trifling, vain, and fond of dress, guilty, in short, of a great many weaknesses over which I daily lament, but then *à qui la faute?*

I contend that men are at least as much to blame for this state of things as women, and that the remedy is in *their* hands. So long as they allow themselves to be captivated by showy dress and pretty little frivolous ways, women will continue to cultivate such; and just as soon as they manifest a preference for something higher and better, women will alter their standard. An impression exists very generally among women that anything like "strongmindedness," any disposition to think and act for themselves, will be an effectual bar to their matrimonial prospects; and certainly appearances would seem to justify such a conclusion.

Why is it that the most intellectual men almost invariably choose pretty little doll-like women, utterly incapable of being companions to them, except in the most limited degree?

Why is it that a sensible woman like myself, for instance, who have never sought to win any man by dress, or by any false pretences, yet who am conscious of capabilities of no mean order of making others happy, have been left to reach the verge of my fiftieth year, unsought and unadmired? Why, but because of the want of right appreciation in the sex who now come forward to charge us with levity and folly!

Don't imagine, dear NATION, that I speak regretfully of my lot; on the contrary, I see more and more reason to be satisfied with it.

So long as men choose their wives as they do, I don't want to be chosen! (I forgot just then how old I was.) I could say more, but having heard men accuse my sex of being garrulous, I will refrain. Pray do me the favor to give these few lines a place in your columns, and forever oblige

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23	Evander O. Tozier,	Boston, Mass.,	Tailor,	2,150
35	Chas. S. Stephenson,	New York, N. Y.,	Ship Broker,	2,000
25	John A. Curtis,	New York, N. Y.,	Auctioneer,	5,000
37	John A. Curtis,	New York, N. Y.,	Auctioneer,	2,500
36	Thomas J. Willard,	Portland, Me.,	Master Mariner,	5,000
23	Edwin H. Rand,	Charlestown, Mass.,	Clerk,	2,000
40	Thomas S. Foster,	Gardiner, Me.,	Merchant Tailor,	2,000
34	Eden P. Foster,	Jackson, Mich.,	Jeweller,	2,100
34	Calvin M. Burbank,	Lawrence, Mass.,	Clerk,	2,000
51	John W. Crafts,	South Boston, Mass.,	Provision Dealer,	10,000
33	Samuel W. Bliss,	Boston, Mass.,	Fruit Dealer,	2,000
35	Richard Turtle,	Chicago, Ill.,	Provision Merchant,	3,000
47	Francis Winter,	New York, N. Y.,	Lock Manufacturer,	3,000
31	D. B. Cunningham,	New York, N. Y.,	Merchant,	2,000
41	Robert N. Corning,	Concord, N. H.,	Railroad Contractor,	2,000
57	Saml. M. Candler,	Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Custom House Clerk,	2,500
40	Charles Lins,	Ashland, Pa.,	Druggist,	3,000
27	Francis Fischer,	Louisville, Ky.,	Hatter,	5,000
26	Zeno Kelly,	West Barnstable, Mass.,	Master Mariner,	1,500
42	Julius Heimann,	New York, N. Y.,	Carriage Maker,	2,000
49	George Draper,	New York, N. Y.,	Clothing Merchant,	2,000
26	Philander M. Chase,	Charlestown, Mass.,	Milkman,	2,000
43	Henry Fishback,	Carlinville, Ill.,	Merchant,	3,000
22	A. C. Sutherland,	Detroit, Mich.,	Book-keeper,	1,500
30	Charles E. Poole,	Pittston, Pa.,	Coal Agent,	2,500
39	Emanuel W. Mace,	Chicago, Ill.,	Cigar Manufacturer,	2,000
37	Robert Clough,	Chicago, Ill.,	Stone Cutter,	2,000
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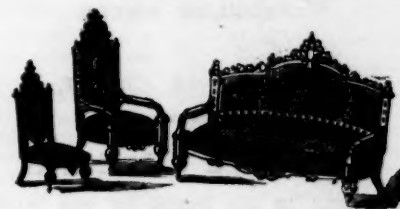
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